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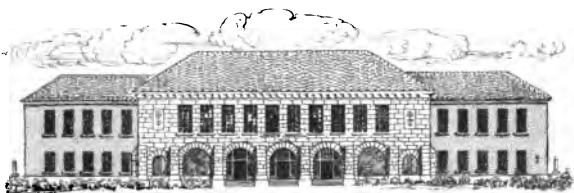
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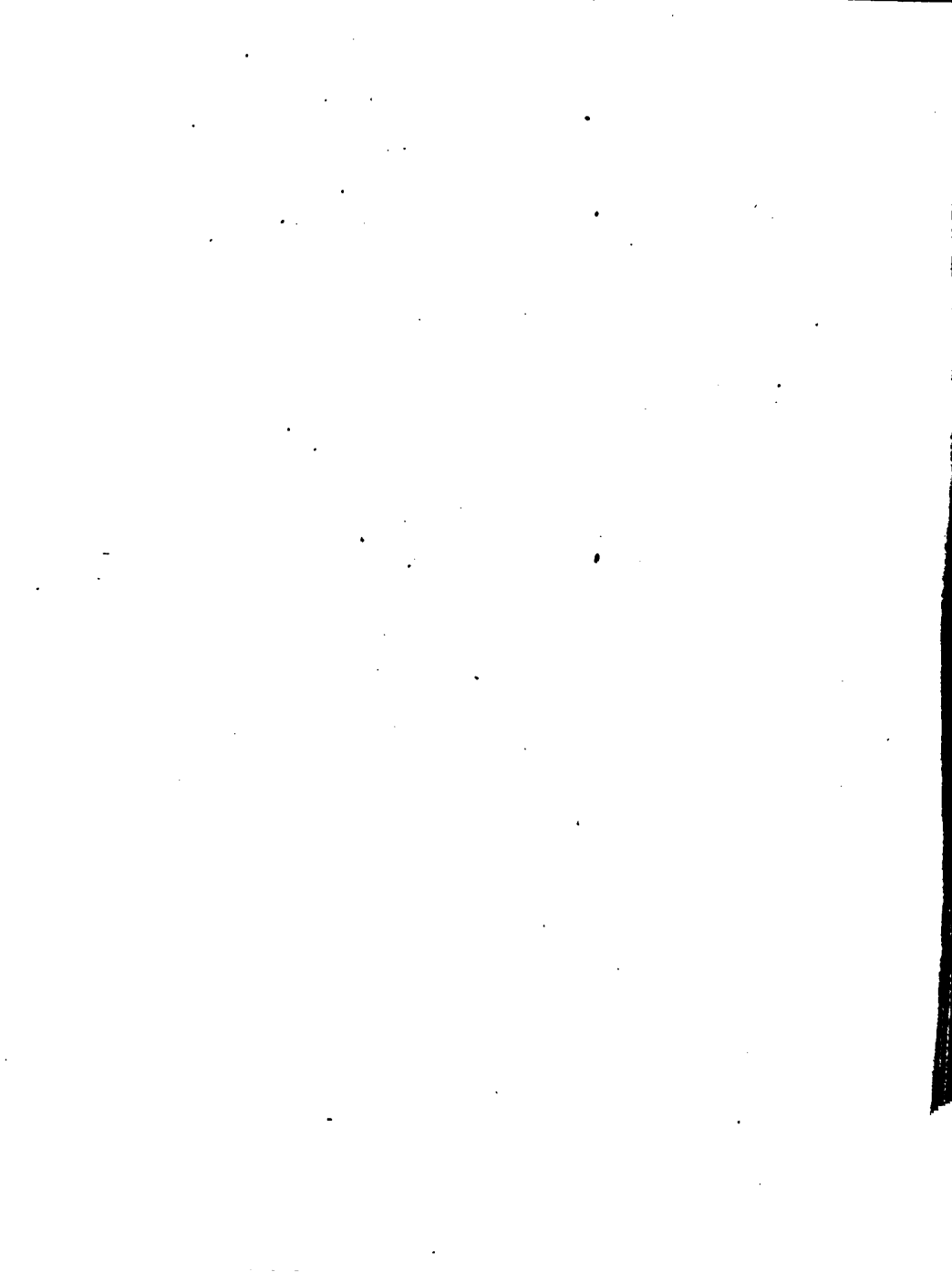


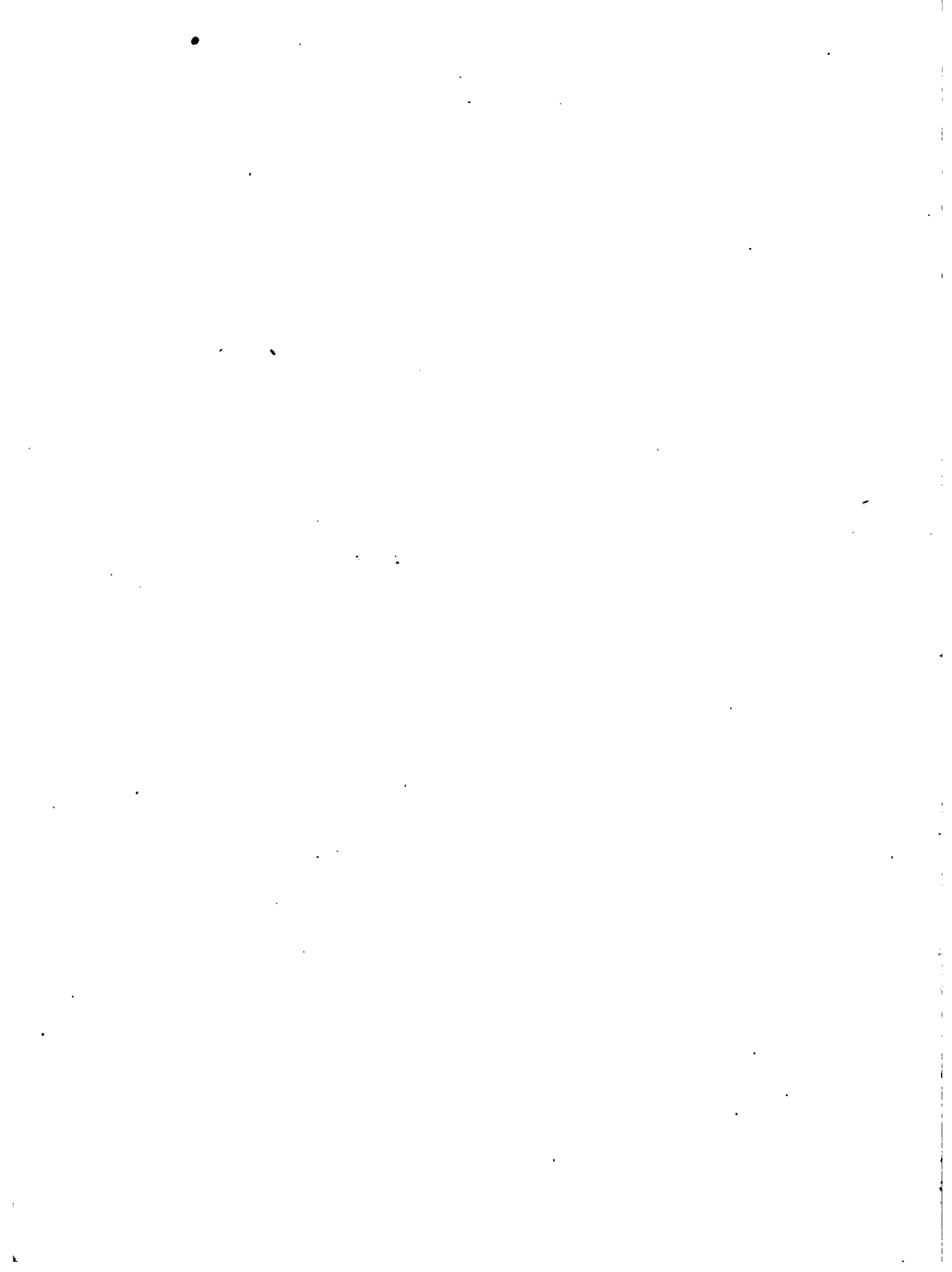
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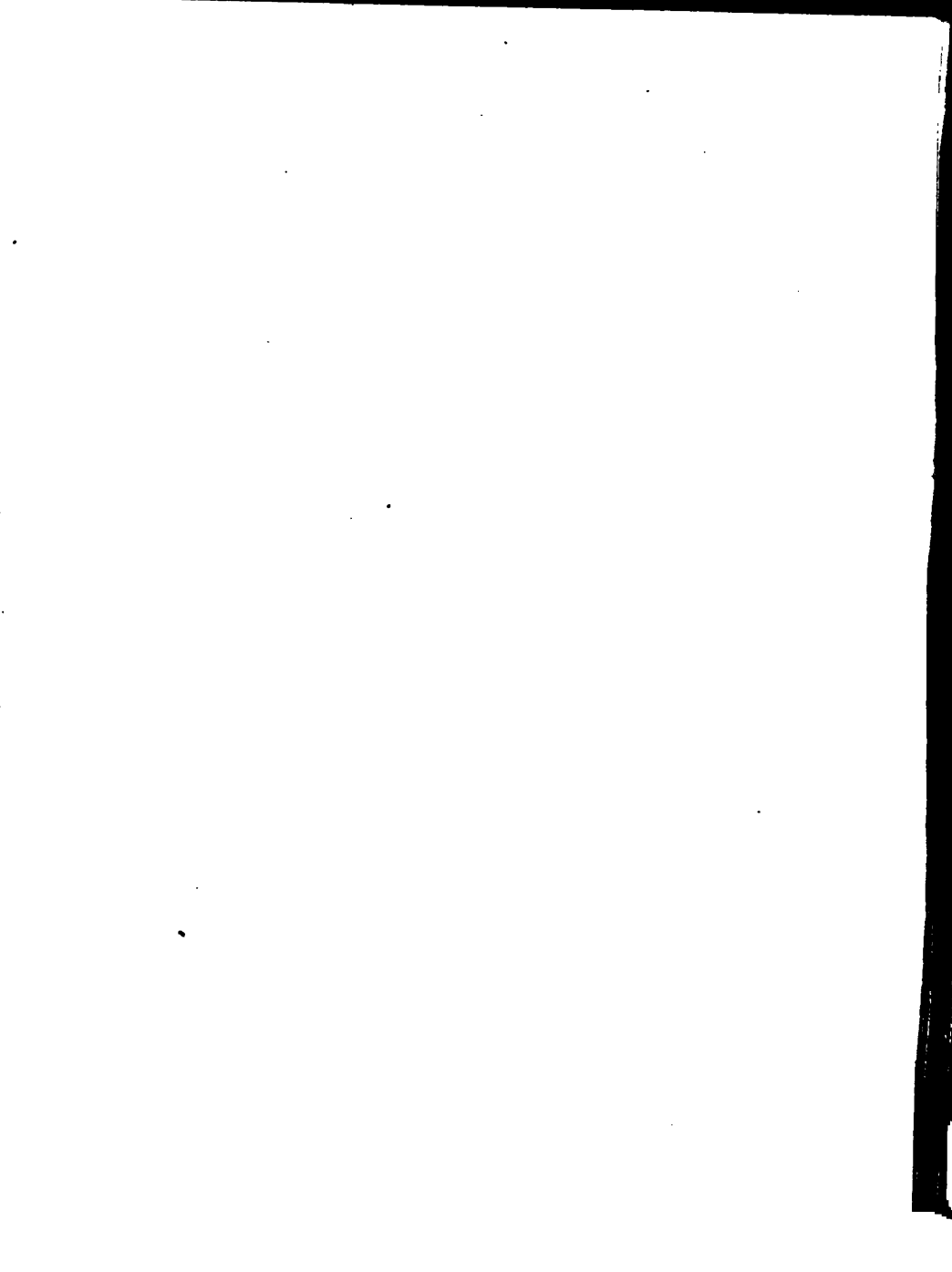
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First Steps
in the
History of Our Country

By

WILLIAM A. MOWRY, PH.D.

and

ARTHUR MAY MOWRY, A.M.

Authors of "A History of the United States for Schools."



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

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NEW YORK BOSTON CHICAGO

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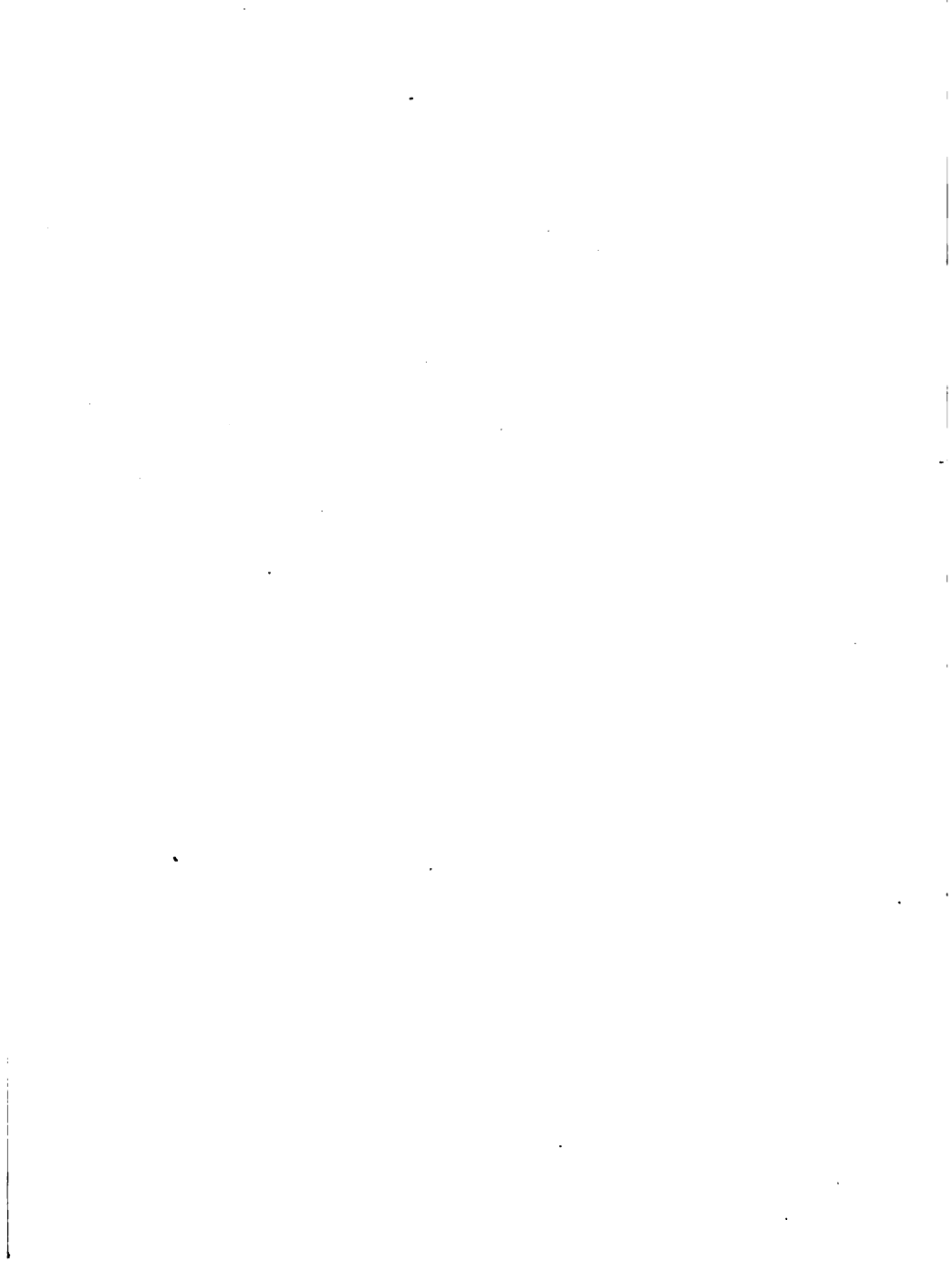
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To
THE MEMORY OF
C. E. M.



Preface

The study of the history of our country is every year becoming more and more important. New books for the young on history, biography, and historical fiction are constantly appearing. It is now very generally admitted that this study should be taken up at an earlier age than has hitherto been customary. Everybody now agrees that the schools should have an elementary book preceding the regular, systematic pursuit of this branch in the two higher grades of the grammar school.

But this preliminary book should not be an "epitome" of the history of our country. It ought not to be a history for more mature pupils, boiled down to the size of a small book for smaller boys and girls. Such a book should have no place in the schools. The biographical plan has great advantages for beginners in the study of this subject. History is a record of events. Events presuppose *actors*, who bring about the events. It is the action of men and women that makes history both valuable and interesting.

Another important factor in this elementary study of history is to create a love for the study in the minds of the children. It is, therefore, necessary that this early treatise should be written in the most entertaining and engaging manner. To this end but few characters can be made prominent. The leading events of each period are made to cluster around a few leading persons. There are many other great personages in the history of our country, but it is by no means necessary to give them a place in this preliminary book. A proper presentation of the lives of the "history-makers" will tend to cultivate a taste for further reading and study. As an aid to teachers and pupils, a select list of books appropriate for supplementary reading has been prepared.

In a book like this, the authors have thought it important to confine the attention of the pupils principally to the text itself. Hence they have omitted all analyses, reviews, foot-notes, appendices, etc.

Recitations should be both by topics and by questions. A few topics have been introduced at the end of each chapter. These are merely suggestive and more should be added by every teacher. Of course the topical recitation should be supplemented by questions which the teacher will devise at the time, and which will tend to bring out the main points of the lesson, especially those that the pupils have failed to note in reciting upon the topic. It is expected that each teacher will prepare and use his own questions, appropriate to the particular class under his instruction, according to the advancement, age, grade, and capacity of the class and the amount of time at his disposal.

The authors accordingly have not thought it best to introduce full and complete sets of questions, either to save time or to aid the teacher in conducting the recitation. They have, however, presented a few typical "thought-questions" at the end of each chapter. These are prepared only as hints and pointers, to suggest such a course to the teacher as will help to avoid the too usual parrot-like method of study—learning the words of the text but not getting down to the thought. These questions can be answered by the study of the text and by proper thought upon what the text says. Different answers to these questions by different pupils are to be encouraged by the teacher. Independence of thought and expression is of deep importance.

In the teaching of history, geographical connections should be constantly observed. The study of history aids the geography and the geography is everywhere an aid to the history. At the time that the pupils are studying history by this book they are usually studying geography also. Each will help the other.

The authors have not thought it wise to introduce many dates. Only a few should be memorized at this early period. It is recommended that all dates in the text which are found in parentheses *should not be memorized*. Neither should the dates at the beginning of the chapters, which show the years of the birth and the death of the person whose name heads the chapter, be committed to memory.

W. A. M.
A. M. M.

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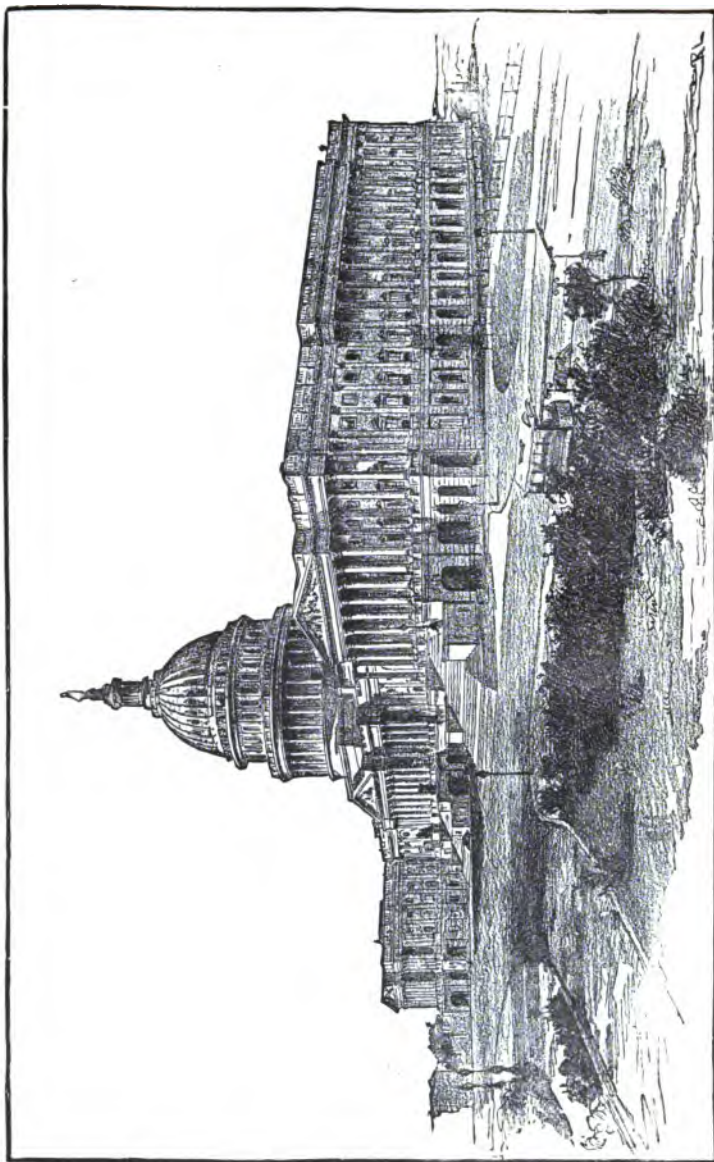
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THE NATION'S CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

Every American has reason to be proud of the National Capitol, which ranks as one of the most beautiful buildings in the world. The main structure, with its original low-crowned dome (see cut, page 199), was completed in 1827; the two wings for the Senate and House of Representatives, and the new dome, 288 feet high, were added between 1851 and 1865.



Columbus

1436-1506



Begging for Shelter at the Convent

CHAPTER I

Christopher Columbus

I. THE BEGGAR

ON the shore of the Mediterranean Sea, where the peninsula of Italy widens to join the continent of Europe, stands the city of Genoa. Here, four hundred and fifty years ago, was born a boy who became a great sea-captain and who made one of the most famous voyages recorded in the history of the world.

This boy's name was Christopher Columbus. His early life was very much like that of many other Italian boys. He went to school long enough to know something about arithmetic, geography, and astronomy, and to read Latin. His father was a wool-comber; that is, a man who combs out the wool and prepares it for the weavers.

For a while Christopher worked at his father's trade, as it was the custom at that time for the eldest boy to have the same trade as his father. But he soon determined that he did not want to stay in Genoa and comb wool all his life. Instead, he wanted to go to sea and learn something of the world.

It is not strange that he had this desire. Genoa was a busy seaport town, many of its inhabitants were sailors, and

vessels were continually coming and going in its beautiful harbor. Columbus, like other boys, doubtless enjoyed going down to the wharves and hearing the sailors tell stories of the countries they had seen.

When he was about fourteen years old he became a sailor, and for years led an adventurous life. He took part in many



THE BOY COLUMBUS.

sea-fights and sailed wherever vessels dared to venture. People now would not call him a great traveler, but in those

days sailors were afraid to go far from sight of land, and what seems to us a short distance was then a very long journey.

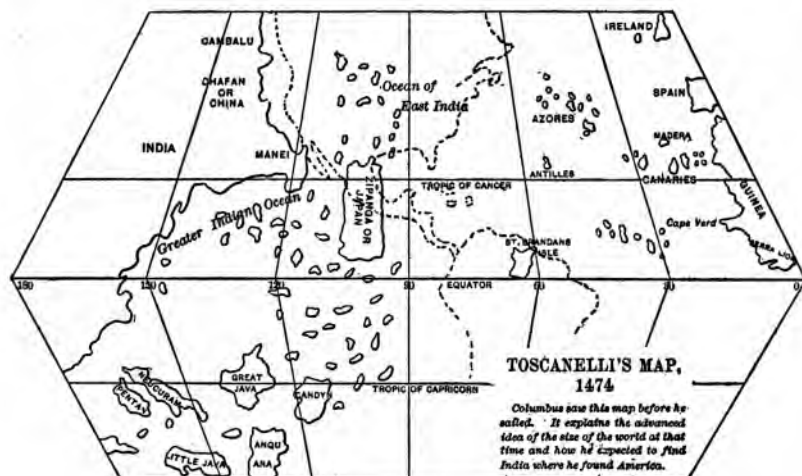
If we should take a map of the world as it was known five or six hundred years ago and compare it with the maps of to-day, we should find a great difference. There was no North nor South America, no Australia, on the maps that Columbus studied. People did not

even dream that any such lands existed. Europe was the only continent that was well known. Only the northern portions and some parts of the western coast of Africa had been visited, and most of Asia was unexplored.

The unknown lands were thought to be filled with huge dragons and other fearful beasts; the men, instead of being small like the inhabitants of Europe, were supposed to be

great and terrible giants. Sailors said that in the Atlantic Ocean were monsters so large that they could take vessels upon their backs and dash them in pieces. Many other foolish and impossible stories were also believed.

When Columbus was a young man people were beginning to get over these notions. The compass had been invented, which showed sailors how to direct their vessels, even when



THE MAP THAT COLUMBUS STUDIED.

they could not see land, or sun, or stars. Now they were able to go farther from the shore. When the terrible things which they expected to find did not appear, they grew braver and the next time sailed a little farther.

More than a hundred years before the birth of Columbus, a man named Marco Polo wrote a book in which he described his travels in Asia. Wonderful stories of countries almost unknown were told. He said that these lands were rich in gold and jewels, and that fragrant spices and costly woods

were abundant. Of course people were anxious to see these countries and obtain wealth. But to do this they would have to make an expensive and dangerous journey across Asia on camel-back. So some of the wise men thought that if vessels could only sail around the southern part of Africa, it would be an easier and less costly journey.

Columbus, while a young man, had been doing something more than fighting and sailing from one country to another. He had been reading books on geography and science, and he had thought and planned until finally an idea took complete hold of him. The idea was this. If he could sail straight west across the Atlantic Ocean, he thought that he would reach the eastern coast of Asia and thus make a shorter voyage than that around Africa. This would prove that the world was round and not flat, as everybody still believed except a few of the most learned men.

How could Columbus carry out his plan? He had no ships and he had no money to buy them. He was but a poor sailor, supporting himself by making maps and charts. Besides, only some king or prince could send out an expedition such as would be needed, and Columbus had no friends at court to take up his cause. At the very beginning his plan seemed hopeless, and a less persistent man would have given up in despair.

Portugal had been for a long time more interested in sending out vessels on voyages of discovery than any other country of Europe. Columbus thought that its king might listen to his plan and give him help. Therefore he went to Lisbon and in time came before the king. King John called all his wise men together. They discussed the matter, and decided that it was impossible to make a voyage such as Columbus planned.

Some said, however, that there might be something in it, and that it would be a shame for Portugal to lose the glory of making the discovery. Therefore they decided to send out a vessel privately, without the knowledge of Columbus. This vessel sailed westward a few days, and then, because the sailors became frightened, came back and reported that



COLUMBUS RIDICULED IN COURT.

the voyage could not be made. Columbus was very angry with the king when he learned of his deceit. He left Portugal and went to try his fortunes at the Court of Spain.

Columbus could hardly have chosen a more unfortunate time to seek aid from Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and queen of Spain. They were in the midst of a fierce and costly war against the Moors, who had possession of the southern part of the Spanish peninsula. It could scarcely be

expected that they would be willing to furnish money to aid an entire stranger, unless they were quite sure that his plan would be successful. Consequently Columbus was put off again and again.

At one time the king and queen went so far as to ask the opinions of the wisest men of the kingdom. These learned men laughed at the idea, and brought up all the old arguments and superstitions to prove that Columbus was entirely wrong. Columbus, however, was not easily discouraged, for he believed thoroughly in his plan. A few noblemen became his friends, but many thought him crazy. He was called the "man with the cloak full of holes." Even the children in the streets would point at him as he passed by.

At last Columbus became quite discouraged and decided to leave Spain. Taking his boy by the hand, he started on the long journey to France on foot. One day, tired and hungry, they stopped at the door of a convent, and Columbus asked for a bit of bread and a cup of water for his son. While they were resting, the prior walked by, and seeing the strangers stopped to talk with them. It was not long before he drew out the story of the traveler's life. He became interested, and he determined, if possible, to keep Columbus in Spain.

This good man had once been Queen Isabella's priest, and he knew that she would listen to what he said. Therefore he kept Columbus at the convent and hurried off to see the queen. He told her that Columbus was an honest man, and that what he said was true. To be sure, it would cost something to help him, but what would a little money be compared with the glory that would fall to Spain if the voyage should be successful?

Queen Isabella listened to the priest's plea and sent for

Columbus to come back to court. He arrived just as the Moors surrendered. Soon after, he was summoned before the king and queen to describe his plans again, but he demanded so high a reward if he came back successful that they declared it would be impossible to help him. He would not accept anything less, and again everything was given up.

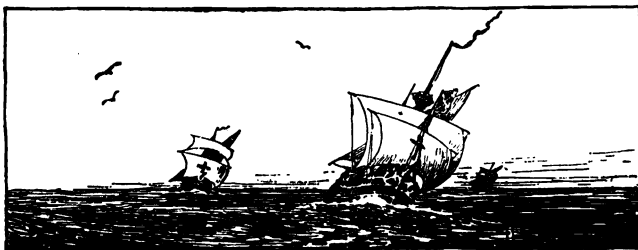
Columbus mounted his donkey and started once more for France. But the queen soon became sorry that she had allowed him to leave. She sent messengers after him in great haste to tell him that she had decided to furnish the money for ships and provisions for the voyage. Once more Columbus turned back. All the long weary years of waiting were at an end. At last the time had come to prove to those who had made such sport of him that he was not so wholly wrong after all.

Tell the story of Columbus: as a boy; as a sailor; at the court of King John; at the Court of Spain; at the convent; as, at last, he obtains aid.

Give an account of Marco Polo and the effect of his book.

Explain what was the great idea of Columbus.

How did the studies of Columbus, when a boy, help him in his great discovery? What route of travel did people use in going to Asia after spices and jewels? Why did people think that the earth was not round? Why did Columbus seek help from the courts rather than from rich men? Why was Columbus angry with the King of Portugal? Why was Columbus nicknamed? What made the prior interested in the poor beggar?



Columbus crossing the Atlantic.



Columbus.



CHAPTER II

Christopher Columbus

2. THE PRINCE

WE must not think that everything suddenly became smooth and easy for Columbus. He must get together vessels, men, and provisions, and this was a difficult task. Sailors were very superstitious and could scarcely be induced to go on this unknown voyage. They thought that if they went they would never see home and friends again. At last two brothers named Pinzon, who had wealth and influence, decided to go with Columbus. Others were induced to join them, and in time three little vessels were ready.

These were very small, not so large as many of our fishing-boats. We should consider them hardly fit to sail from one port to another along the coast. In fact, only one of the three had a deck over the whole vessel. In the other two the deck covered only a part of the hold. Is it any wonder that the sailors were afraid to go?

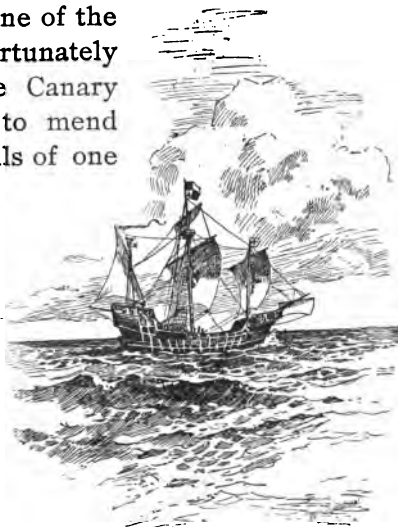
Columbus, however, was not afraid. He believed he was going to succeed, and succeed he did, though not exactly as he expected. He thought that he was going to find the east-

ern coast of Asia, and King Ferdinand gave him a letter of introduction to the King of China. We shall see whether he had a chance to use it or not.

Finally the last good-byes were said, and on one bright summer morning the little vessels turned their prows westward and were gone. For two days all went well, but, on the third, one of the vessels broke its rudder. Fortunately they were not far from the Canary Isles; they sailed into port to mend the rudder and change the sails of one of the vessels.

After spending nearly a month at the islands, they once more set sail and went on day after day, though it seemed as if each day brought them no nearer land. The sailors became frightened at the length of the voyage, and Columbus felt obliged to keep from them the true number of miles they sailed each day. Besides, the needle of the compass did not point just as it did at home, and the wind always blew from the east. The sailors thought that they surely would never get home again, for they would need a west wind to help them sail back. One day the wind changed and that trouble was ended.

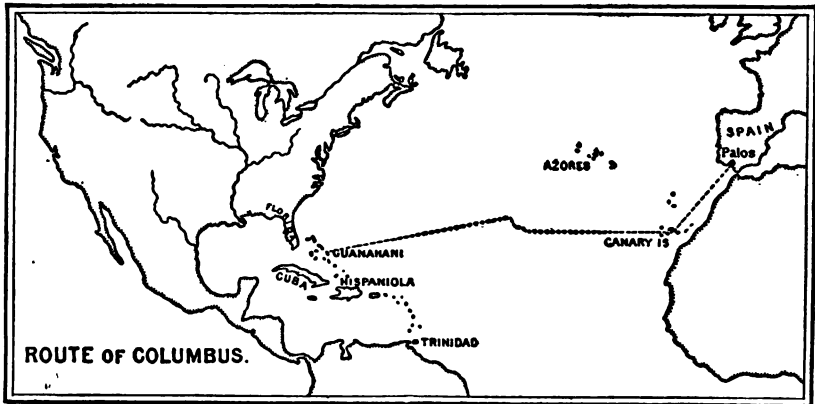
Still every strange thing frightened them, and their fear increased as each day went by and no land appeared. At one time they talked of throwing Columbus overboard, so



THE FLAGSHIP OF COLUMBUS.

that they might be free to go home. We must not blame them too severely for this. They were only poor ignorant sailors, and had never been so far from home before. All watched eagerly for land; nearly every day some one raised the cry of "Land!" This served only to make them more disappointed when what they saw proved to be only a cloud on the horizon.

At last all decided that land must be near. Many little birds flew about the vessels; a fish which only lives near the



shore was seen; a branch with red berries floated by; and a piece of wood, with marks on it that could only have been made by men, was picked up. All murmuring ceased, and every one was on the watch to be the first to catch sight of the long-desired land.

One night, as Columbus stood on the deck of his vessel, he thought he saw a light far off in the distance, which flashed out brightly several times and then vanished. Later, the cry of "Land! land!" came from one of the vessels. This time

it was no false call. With daylight a beautiful island covered with green trees and tropical plants appeared. The vessels were anchored; boats were lowered; and Columbus and his companions, richly dressed, were rowed to the shore.

As soon as they landed, Columbus knelt, kissed the earth, and gave thanks to God for having brought them safely on their voyage. Then he arose, planted his flag, and took possession in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. We must not forget the day on which Columbus reached the island, as it is the first important date in the history of the New World. It was October 21st, 1492 (or October 12th by the old style of reckoning).

The inhabitants of the island, who at first had been frightened and had fled, now came up, bringing simple presents. They had never before seen men with white skins nor boats with great sails. They thought that the vessels were huge birds which had come from heaven, and that the men were gods. They gave the newcomers the best they had and treated them as superior people. Poor creatures! it was not many months before they found that these white people were very unlike gods.

The natives had a dark, copper-colored skin, and wore little or no clothing. Their hair was straight and black, their eyes bright, and their bodies well formed. They lived an easy, simple life. Everything they needed for food grew abundantly and was close at hand. So long as they had plenty to eat and shelter from storms, they required nothing else. Columbus called them Indians, because he thought that the island was off the coast of India. This name they kept, even after it was found that they did not live on one of the East Indies, but in a new and hitherto wholly unknown part of the world.

After this the vessels sailed from one island to another, seeking the rich kingdoms of Asia and gold. But Asia did not appear and gold was obtained only in small quantities. Among the islands discovered was Hayti, which Columbus called Hispaniola or Little Spain. Here his largest vessel went ashore through the carelessness of one of the sailors, and could not be repaired.

Columbus decided that this would be a good place to leave some of his followers. These men were to make a home on the island and put things in readiness, so that others could come out from Spain and join the colony. He built a fort from the timbers of the wrecked vessel, left on the island about forty men, and started back to Spain.

It was then winter and a severe storm came on. It seemed as though the vessels would be destroyed and all on board lost. Therefore Columbus wrote two accounts of his voyage and his discoveries, and put them in two casks. These he placed on the deck in such a manner that if the vessel sunk they would be washed off. He hoped that in time they might float to shore and tell the story of the voyage, even if the whole expedition were lost.

Fortunately the vessels were not destroyed, and the port of Palos was reached in safety. There was great rejoicing in Spain at the return of the expedition. A procession was formed, in which Columbus rode in state, preceded by the Indians whom he had brought back with him and by men bearing fruits and treasures from the land which he had discovered.

He was treated like one of Spain's greatest noblemen, and was given a seat in the presence of the king and queen while he told them the story of the voyage. How different was this from his first entrance into Spain! Then

he was a poor, unknown man—now he was a prince, honored by all.

Almost immediately preparations were made for a second voyage. This time there was no difficulty in finding men willing to go. Every one, from the poorest sailors to the nobles in court, wanted to gain a fortune in the new land. In a few months, seventeen vessels and fifteen hundred men were ready. They reached the islands without mishap, and anchored in the harbor near which the colony had been left the year before.

No signs of men or buildings were to be seen. The place was deserted and the fort completely destroyed. Columbus sought another place in which to leave his new colony. He selected a harbor thirty or forty miles distant, and commenced to build a city. This city, the first in the New World, was named Isabella, in honor of the Queen of Spain.

Now began Columbus' misfortunes. He was well fitted for a life of exploration; he was a man of great earnestness and persistence of purpose, but he was not a good governor. He made many mistakes and more enemies. When it was found that gold was not to be picked up everywhere as was expected, and that every one was obliged to work hard to obtain even a



COLUMBUS RETURNING IN CHAINS.

living, the colonists became very angry and declared that Columbus was an impostor.

So many complaints came from the colony to Spain that at last Ferdinand sent out a man to look into the truth of the stories. He thought it a good opportunity to make himself governor; therefore he put Columbus in chains and sent him back to Spain. Upon his arrival the people were indignant at the treatment he had received. They thought that even if he had made mistakes he ought not to have been sent home



HOW MUCH COLUMBUS DISCOVERED.

(The white portions of the map show the land which he discovered.)

like a common criminal. The king and queen received him kindly and gave him back his property; but they decided not to send him again as governor of a colony.

Columbus made four voyages of discovery in all. Soon after his last voyage he died, worn out by his many troubles. His body was carried across the Atlantic and buried on the Island of Hayti, which he had discovered. When that island was ceded to France, his remains were again taken over sea

and with great pomp deposited in the Cathedral in Havana, where they remained until 1898, when the Spanish, after their defeat by the United States, were granted permission to take them to Spain.

To Christopher Columbus belongs the honor of being the "Discoverer of the New World," even though it does not bear his name and though he died still believing that it was a part of Asia.

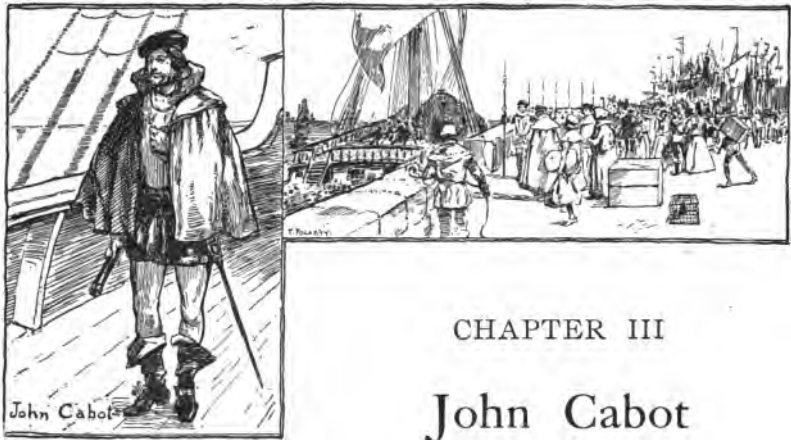
Tell the story of the preparations for the voyage; the voyage itself; the watching for land; the taking possession of the island; the return to Spain; the second voyage; the harsh treatment of Columbus; his later life.

Describe the people whom Columbus found on the islands.

How did the Pinzon brothers aid Columbus? Did Columbus give the letter to the king of China? What do you think made the light which Columbus saw? How many years have passed since the discovery of America? What changed the Indians' idea of the white men? Why did Columbus build a fort? How did the Spaniards expect to gain a fortune in the new land? What became of the fort and the men whom Columbus left behind?



COAT OF ARMS OF COLUMBUS.



CHAPTER III

John Cabot

ON the maps drawn four and five hundred years ago, the Atlantic Ocean, instead of a broad expanse of water west of Europe, was represented as being full of islands. Many stories of these islands were told by sailors, who said that land could frequently be seen, lying low on the horizon, as the sun set over the western sea.

Some of the islands were supposed to be large and important, especially the Island of Brazil and the Island of the Seven Cities. The latter was said to be inhabited by Christians, who, years before, had fled from seven cities of Asia under their seven bishops, and had taken refuge across the ocean.

For years the merchants of Bristol, England, had sent out vessels to search for these fabled islands. One of the commanders of these expeditions was John Cabot. He had been one of the foremost in these explorations, as he felt quite certain that, somewhere in the western ocean, land could be found. Thus far he had been unsuccessful, for he had at no time sailed far enough west to reach the American coast.

John Cabot, like Columbus, was born at Genoa, but he had lived for many years in Venice and is usually called a Venetian. He was a skilled and experienced seaman, who had sailed on many waters and had been in many countries. He had traveled east as far as Mecca, the Holy City of Arabia. There he had seen caravans loaded with fragrant spices that had come from the far East. He asked those who had charge where these spices grew, and received the answer that they had been brought by other caravans that had come from still farther east.

Whether Cabot had reasoned that these rich lands of Asia could be reached by sailing west is not certain. But as soon as the news of Columbus' discovery reached England, Cabot immediately decided that he could sail west and reach the coast of Asia also.

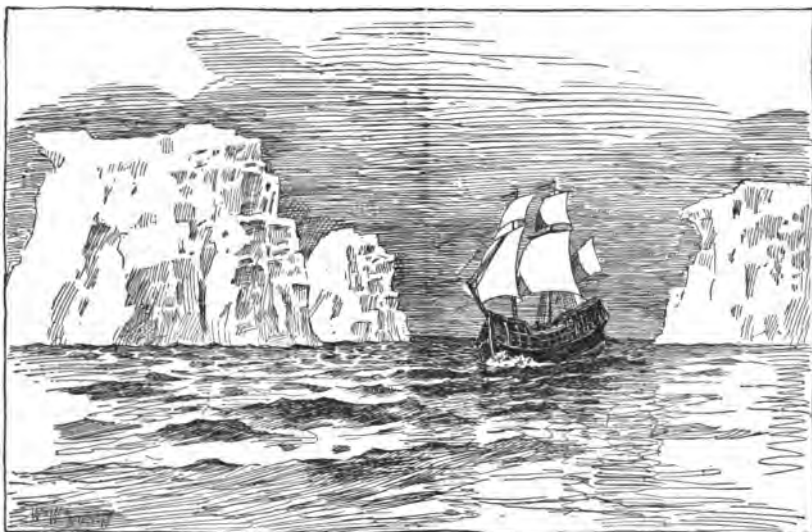
King Henry VII. of England, who naturally desired to share with Spain in the new discoveries, was pleased at the plan and promises of Cabot. He gave him and his three sons permission to sail, and soon a little ship was made ready for the voyage. This vessel was called the *Matthew*, and had a crew of but eighteen men. Three or four other vessels were fitted out for trading-purposes by the merchants of Bristol. These started with Cabot, but it is supposed that they went only a short distance and then turned back, leaving the little *Matthew* to sail on alone.

There is little known about this first voyage, except that it began early in May (1497). Cabot probably encountered but few storms or serious hardships, as land was reached in June. This land, which Cabot called Newfoundland, is now known as Cape Breton Island, and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow channel.

Thus Cabot was the first to find the mainland of Amer-

ica. Although Columbus had by this time made a second voyage across the Atlantic, he had gone no farther than the islands that lie some distance from the coast. Not until the year after Cabot discovered the North American continent did Columbus succeed in reaching the coast of South America.

It was no fertile, tropical land that Cabot found, but a bar-



CABOT'S SHIP AMONG ICEBERGS.

ren and unproductive region. No natives came to the beach to welcome him, thinking that the newcomers were gods. So long as the vessel stayed no Indians appeared. Still it was decided that there must be some inhabitants, as traps were discovered in the woods, arranged for catching wild animals. A needle for net-making was picked up. Besides, many trees were found notched, perhaps to guide those who were traveling through the forests. Cabot and his men, however.

did not stay long enough to make a very thorough search. As they had but little food with them, they started back to England in a few days.

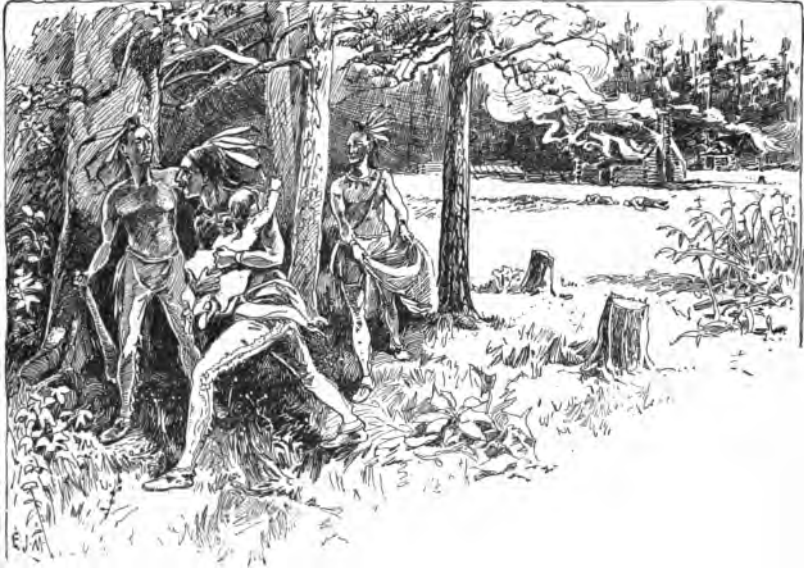
Their arrival caused the greatest excitement. The report was spread that Cabot had discovered the Island of the Seven Cities and a portion of the coast of Asia. A writer of the time says that the Englishmen followed Cabot "like madmen." He was called "the Great Admiral." He dressed in silk and was treated like a prince. Cabot, unlike many others, did not wish to keep all his good fortune to himself. Instead, he wanted his friends and neighbors to share it with him. Some he appointed governors, others he made bishops over the new land which he had discovered.

King Henry was so delighted at the success of the expedition that he sent its leader the sum of £10, or about \$50 of our money. This seems a very small sum for a rich king to send to a man who had performed such a service as Cabot had. But Henry was a miserly king and it probably seemed a large sum to him. Besides, money went a great deal farther then than now.

The next year a larger expedition was fitted out. Cabot planned to go west until he reached the land he had found the year before. Then he thought that if he sailed south he would come to the Island of Cipango, or Japan, where he expected to fill his vessel with spices and jewels. Five or six ships started out early in the spring. This time Cabot sailed farther north than before—so far that the ships met many icebergs and the days were so long that there was almost no night. The sailors became frightened at the quantity of ice, and the vessels were turned to the south.

From Labrador Cabot sailed along the coast of North America until he nearly reached the peninsula of Florida.

But England was at war with Spain. The Spanish Armada, of nearly a hundred and fifty vessels, was preparing to make an attack upon the English. Raleigh, like all other true Englishmen, was devoting his energies to aid in warding off the attack. The little band of exiles on Roanoke



DESTRUCTION OF AN EARLY SETTLEMENT BY THE INDIANS.

Island must wait a while. Two vessels, it is true, were sent to carry them supplies, but both met Spanish ships and were driven back to England. It was three years after Governor White sailed out of Roanoke Harbor before an English rescue fleet arrived.

The little settlement was nowhere to be seen. Scarcely any remains were found to indicate that white men had ever

United States study the story of this almost unknown man?

The reason is that, because of these two voyages of John Cabot, England laid claim to the whole Atlantic coast from Labrador to Florida. Because she laid claim to it, she sent out colonists to take possession. And because she sent colonists, the people of the United States speak the English language. Had it not been for John Cabot, we might now have for our native tongue the Spanish language, as do the people of Mexico and most of the nations of South America.

Give an account of the fabled islands. Tell the story of Cabot: in early life; on his first voyage; on his return; on his second voyage. Tell why Cabot supposed the new land to be inhabited. Tell Cabot's story of the fish.

Do you suppose the fabled islands were really the coast of America, or were they low-lying clouds? What was the difference between the aid given by Queen Isabella to Columbus and that by King Henry to Cabot? Why do some people claim that Cabot and not Columbus discovered America? Do you think that Cabot ever knew that the land he had found was not Asia? Why do you suppose we know so little about the life of John Cabot?



THE ROYAL ARMS OF ENGLAND.



CHAPTER IV

Ferdinand de Soto

1496-1542

WHEN it was known that a new world had been discovered beyond the Atlantic, great excitement took possession of the inhabitants of Spain. A splendid opportunity was now thrown open to all who were brave and adventurous to explore these new regions.

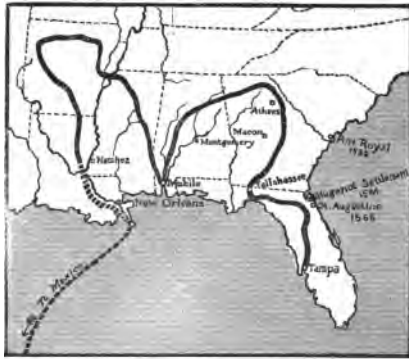
Those who were poor expected to gain great wealth, and those who were already rich wanted to add still more to their abundance. Not only was it said that gold, silver, and jewels could be obtained in great quantities, but it was also reported that somewhere in this new world was a wonderful fountain. If any one who was old should bathe in its waters, almost immediately his lost youth would return to him. This in the eyes of many would be of more importance than all the gold or jewels in the world. Therefore it was not strange that expedition after expedition was sent out, for all were anxious to obtain youth and riches.

One of the bravest of the leaders of these expeditions was the young and courageous Ferdinand de Soto. He belonged to a noble Spanish family, but was so poor that when he went on his first voyage he had no outfit but his sword and shield.

He was the bravest of the brave, however, and his valor soon made up for his poverty. He gained riches in Peru and was promoted step by step until he became Governor of Cuba and President of Florida.

Some one who had been to Florida had said that it was the richest country in the world. This traveler, seeing with the eyes of imagination, must have thought that the sand, sparkling in the sunshine, was gold, and the many bright colored flowers jewels.

But everybody shared fully in this belief, and thousands were eager to go. So many prepared for the voyage that the ships would not hold them, and thus, disappointed, some had to stay behind. On a Sunday morning in early spring time (1539) seven ships set sail, with De Soto and six hundred eager companions on board.



THE LONG MARCH OF DE SOTO.

After touching at Cuba, De Soto arrived at Tampa Bay, on the western coast of Florida, without disaster. His plan was to go anywhere and everywhere in search of gold. At first he endeavored to capture some Indians who would serve as guides and interpreters.

He met with a remarkable piece of good fortune. He came upon a Spaniard, John Ortiz, who had been seized by the Indians many years before. He had lived with the red men, first as a captive cruelly treated, and afterward as a friend and counsellor; consequently he knew their language

and customs perfectly. No better guide and interpreter could have been found, and he was not at all unwilling to leave his Indian friends and cast in his lot with De Soto.

Now began a terrible march, northward and westward. The ground was covered with thick woods. Vines and tangled creepers ran from tree to tree. There were no roads except here and there Indian paths. The country was full of bogs and marshes, in which the horses stuck fast and sank. Every few miles rivers were reached—some wide, some narrow. When the travelers came to one that could not be forded, they made a rude bridge of trees; if the rivers were especially wide, they built boats. At times provisions were scarce, and men and horses grew thin and ill for lack of proper food.

Added to all this, the Indians were hostile and treacherous. In the land through which De Soto first passed, white men had been before. These had treated the Indians with great cruelty, and the red men, in their turn, were ready to fight and deceive whenever it was possible.

Then, too, De Soto was not more wise than the Spaniards whom the Indians had previously seen. When he passed into a region entirely unknown to white men, he was for a time received with kindness. The chiefs placed all their braves at his service, and gave him plenty of food for his men and horses; in fact, they gave him the best they had. But it did not take many days for this to change. De Soto was cruel; he captured the chiefs and made the Indians slaves, compelling them to carry his heavy burdens. If they rebelled or deserted they were tortured and killed. Therefore it is not strange that many battles were fought and many lives were lost.

All this time no gold was discovered. The Indians con-

tinually told stories of rich villages to the west. But when these settlements were reached, nothing of importance was found except a few pearls, which had been ruined by having holes bored through them. It was like following a will-o'-



THE BURIAL OF DE SOTO

the-wisp. Still they pushed on, their number daily growing smaller and the survivors weaker, ever hoping to find the fabled gold.

Finally they reached a mighty river, the Mississippi, which means in the Indian tongue the "father of waters." This river they crossed with great difficulty, and they pushed on west—ever west. After nearly a year more of travel, even De Soto became discouraged. The expedition turned and sought the sea. The Mississippi was again reached, where De Soto became ill and died. Then, a panic seized his followers; they feared that, now that their leader, whom the Indians supposed to be immortal, was gone, they would be

attacked and killed. Therefore they determined to conceal the death of De Soto from the Indians.

This was no small task, as the Indians were skilled in all kinds of woodcraft. They would be able to detect the slightest disturbance in leaf or twig, and a grave would quickly be discovered, no matter how skilfully concealed. One night a boat pushed out silently from the shore. When the deep water of the river was reached, the body of the intrepid leader was lifted over the side of the boat and lowered into the stream. Quickly it sank in the waters, with only a ripple to mark its resting-place.

It was a sad end for the brave De Soto, who had left his ships so hopefully three years before. His misfortunes he brought upon himself. The Indians were ready to repay kindness with kindness. They were cruelly and deceitfully treated, and they were cruel and deceitful in return.

De Soto's followers, discouraged and hopeless, succeeded in building a few small vessels. These were launched in the Mississippi River, and, fifteen months after the death of De Soto, reached Mexico. Out of the six hundred who set out from Tampa Bay, nearly half perished in this disastrous journey.

Describe the interest that Spaniards felt in the new countries.

Tell the story of De Soto's journey.

Describe the character of the country through which he passed.

Give an account of the death and burial of De Soto.

Was the desire for wealth sufficient to lead men to cross the ocean? Do you know of any recent cases where people have been "crazy to go" into some new country? How did it happen that John Ortiz was in America? Why were there "no roads"? What is meant by "fording a river"? Why did the Indians continually tell the Spaniards that there were "rich villages to the west"?



CHAPTER V

Sir Walter Raleigh

1552-1616

MORE than half a century after the voyages of Columbus an English boy was born, for whom the capital of North Carolina is named. His family had been illustrious for many generations, and, though it had lost much of its possessions, it was still able to give young Walter Raleigh a fair start in life.

After that, however, all that he accomplished was obtained by his own hard work. He was a soldier, fighting bravely in the civil wars in France. He was a sailor, leading in the overthrow of the famous Spanish Armada. He was an orator, able to dispute with the great statesmen of his day. He was a courtier, the favorite of Queen Elizabeth.

Raleigh was a man of commanding presence. He was six feet in height and remarkably well built. He was accustomed, like the other courtiers of Elizabeth, to set off his handsome face and striking form by dress of the richest material. Silks and velvets, embroidered with gems and gold, were his usual apparel. He possessed most charming manners and was a model of politeness. One day the queen, with her attendant courtiers, came to a muddy place in the road. Seeing that she hesitated to place her dainty slippers

in the mud, Raleigh immediately "spread his new plush cloak on the ground, whereon the queen trod gently over, rewarding him afterward with many suits for his so free and reasonable tender of so fair a foot-cloth."

Raleigh, however, was more than a mere idler about the court. Before he was thirty years of age he began to

show an interest in America. Eighty years had passed since the voyages of Cabot gave England a claim to the Atlantic coast of America. Meanwhile, Spain had conquered Mexico and the West Indies, and had made a settlement at Saint Augustine in Florida. France had explored the coast and had tried to establish colonies. But England had apparently forgotten all about the new world.



WHERE RALEIGH LANDED.

The time had come for a revival of English interest in America. Sir Francis

Drake returned from his voyage around the world and gave an account of what he had seen of the unknown lands. Martin Frobisher sought a northwest passage around the new continent to Asia. Sir Humphrey Gilbert made two expeditions from England, and tried in vain to make a settlement in Newfoundland. A few of the more thoughtful as well as the more adventurous Englishmen began to perceive that a new England in America would greatly increase

the power of the old England across the water. Among these statesmen was Walter Raleigh, the handsome, popular, brave courtier of Elizabeth.

Raleigh was a younger brother of Sir Humphrey Gilbert and had taken part in his first expedition. Fortunately he did not accompany his brother in the second, or he might have lost his life in the same storm in which his brother perished.¹

The death of Gilbert and the loss of his entire fortune did not lessen Raleigh's desire to build up an English home in the new world. He took up the work where his brother left it, and the next year fitted out two ships to explore the coast of America and choose a suitable place for a colony.

The leaders of this expedition returned and reported that the Island of Roanoke, off the coast of what was later called Carolina, was well adapted for a settlement. There they had found a fertile soil, a delightful climate, and friendly Indians. Queen Elizabeth knighted Raleigh for this expedition, and directed that the new country be named Virginia, in honor of herself, the "Virgin Queen."

The next year (1585) Sir Walter sent out his first colony. What energy and courage were needed by the one hundred colonists, who left England in a fleet of seven small vessels! A voyage across the Atlantic did not then contain the terrors that it had in the time of Columbus, but the thought of a home in the wilds of an unknown land, thousands of miles from England, with an ocean between them and all their friends, must have been disheartening. But they sailed bravely across the waters, began at once to build their rude houses, and sent all their vessels back to England.

Troubles arose at once. The friendly Indians of the year before began to show themselves hostile. They did not like

the thought that these newcomers were taking the land that had been theirs. They were angry, and they had reason to be, at the way the white men treated them.

Governor Ralph Lane had sent out an exploring party soon after the colonists arrived. On its return it was found that a silver cup, which one of the party had carried, was missing. Instantly they charged the red men with stealing it. Hastening back, they came to an Indian town from which all the inhabitants had fled. In retaliation for the loss of the cup the white men burned the whole town, with all the houses and stores of provisions. This foolish act was followed by a long series of injuries, until the red men plotted to massacre the entire colony.

Lane and his little band discovered the plot and succeeded in defending themselves. But the constant fear of the Indians and the unaccustomed hardships proved too much for the colonists. They missed their well-built houses at home, their wholesome food, and their soft beds. When Sir Francis Drake sailed into the harbor in June, he was eagerly besought to take them home. The admiral consented, and Raleigh's first colony was abandoned.

Governor Lane carried home with him samples of three of the products of the new world, which had hitherto been unknown in England—maize or Indian corn, white potatoes, and tobacco. Raleigh planted the potatoes on his estate in Ireland, where the root became popular. It has since been cultivated by the people of that island so persistently that it is now everywhere known as the Irish potato.

Lane and Raleigh also introduced into Europe the habit of smoking. Every one enjoys the story of Raleigh's servant, who, carrying his master a mug of ale, saw him for the first time sending forth whiffs of tobacco-smoke. Overcome

with fright, the man threw the ale in Raleigh's face and ran from the room, calling out that his master was on fire and would soon be consumed.

Still anxious to extend the English domain, Raleigh sent out a larger colony the next year, under Captain John White. When the fleet reached Roanoke Island, it was found that all the houses of the previous settlement had been destroyed by the Indians. Where the village had been was now a melon-patch.

Not a very pleasant welcome for these strangers! New houses were soon built, however, and the colony at once settled down to regular life. But provisions and reinforcements were necessary, and the governor sailed for England to seek them and to give a report of the colony.

Governor White was very sorry to be compelled so early to leave the colony. He felt himself responsible for its welfare, and he was especially anxious because he left behind him a daughter, Mrs. Dare, and a little granddaughter. This girl was named Virginia, because she was the first English child born in the new land. She was but nine days old when her grandfather sailed out of sight of the colony. Anxiously did the governor look forward to a quick return from England.



RALEIGH'S SERVANT, SEEING HIS MASTER SMOKING, IMAGINES HE IS ON FIRE.

Scrooby. As he grew older he became an earnest upholder of the beliefs of the small denomination. He was a scholar and was familiar with those studies which require considerable thought, such as the ancient languages, philosophy, and theology. He was fitted to be a leader in a religious movement, and, though still young, he was prominent very early among the exiles in Amsterdam.

Soon the little band removed to Leyden, another city of Holland. Here these wanderers began to call themselves Pilgrims, because they did not seem to have any permanent home. In Leyden, with their beloved pastor, John Robinson, they lived for nearly eleven years.

These English people, in the strange Dutch land, of course had no easy task to find means of support. But as weavers, masons, carpenters, hat makers, and tailors, they were able to make a competent and comfortable living by hard and continued labor.

After some years, however, they began to question among themselves if everything was as it should be. They were English people, and believed in English methods and customs. Was it not likely that their sons and daughters, growing up among the Dutch, would learn Dutch ways instead of English? Perhaps they might even marry among the people of Holland, and so make it their permanent home.

Consequently their thoughts were turned toward the possibility of settling in America. There they would be free from English punishments and also from Dutch customs. There they could worship God as they thought right and at the same time carry the Bible to the Indians. Accordingly, for two or three years, they tried to make arrangements with the Virginia Company to send them across the ocean. At last, in 1620, an agreement was reached, and, in the middle

of summer, the vessel *Speedwell* sailed from Delft-Haven, the port of Leyden.

The *Speedwell* was too small to carry half of the members of the Leyden church; therefore Elder William Brewster was sent with the colonists, and Pastor John Robinson remained in Holland with the majority, who could not then go. The little vessel sailed to Southampton, England, where it was joined by the *Mayflower*, with other Separatists who had remained in England. The two vessels left Southampton, but were twice compelled to return to English harbors, because the *Speedwell* was leaking. Finally it was decided to use the *Mayflower* alone, and, early in September, a little band of one hundred men, women, and children left the harbor of Plymouth, England, for their stormy voyage across the Atlantic Ocean.

More than two months passed before land was seen. This proved to be a part of Cape Cod. The Pilgrims had one of John Smith's maps of the New England coast, and therefore knew where they were. They anchored in the harbor of Provincetown, and at once thanked God "who had brought them over the vast and furious ocean and delivered them from all the perils and miseries thereof, again to set their feet on the firm and stable earth."



THE "MAYFLOWER" IN WINTER HARBOR AT PLYMOUTH.

While the *Mayflower* lay in the harbor an agreement was drawn up and signed by forty-one men. This was the "*Mayflower Compact*," which pledged the signers to obey the



IN A PILGRIM'S HOME.

government which it established. Then the voyagers elected John Carver governor.

Nearly a month was spent in exploring the shores of

Cape Cod Bay, in order to find a suitable spot for the settlement. Finally a party of twelve Pilgrims landed at the spot marked on Smith's map as Plymouth. This took place on **December 21st, 1620**—a day since celebrated as Forefather's Day. The explorers chose Plymouth as the site of the colony, and the *Mayflower* was brought across into that harbor.

The Virginia colony had commenced its settlement just at the beginning of a hot and sickly summer; the Plymouth colonists arrived at the beginning of a cold and dreary New England winter. The Jamestown settlers lacked provisions during that first summer; the Plymouth band had not sufficient



A SPYING INDIAN.

food to keep them alive through that first winter. The hundred Virginians of the summer of 1607 decreased to about fifty before autumn; the hundred Pilgrims of the December of 1620 were but about fifty at the beginning of the next summer. Thus the winter hardships of the New Eng-

land colony were as severe as those of the first summer in Virginia.

Among the deaths that spring was that of Governor Carver. The colonists at once elected young William Bradford as his successor. Year after year the Plymouth colony chose him as governor, even to the time of his death. During the thirty-six years of his life in America, Bradford was governor thirty-one. To his wise government was due much of the success of the colony, which slowly but surely grew after the first winter.

As was the case everywhere among the new settlements in America, one of the greatest dangers



CAPTAIN STANDISH RECEIVING THE CHALLENGE.

lay in the hostility of the Indians. Fortunately for the Pilgrims, but few red men lived in the neighborhood of Plymouth when the colony was founded. This was one of the main reasons for the years of peace with the Indians that followed the landing of the colonists. Besides, the Pilgrims treated the Indians in a kindly spirit and yet showed a firm determination to protect themselves.

Early in the spring of 1621 an Indian named Samoset visited the Plymouth colony; he was received with kindness and sent away with a few presents. Soon he returned with

Squanto, another Indian, who could speak some English, as he had been captured and taken to England years before by a party exploring the New England coast. Squanto was of considerable assistance to the colony, teaching them how to plant the Indian corn and also giving information concerning the neighboring Indian tribes.

The next autumn a tribe of Indians, called the Narragansetts, thought that they would frighten the Pilgrims; so they sent them a "bundle of arrows tied about with a great snake skin." The colonists, though desiring peace, were not cowardly; they immediately returned the skin filled with bullets. Then they began to strengthen their fort and to place themselves in readiness. But the Indians did not dare make an attack, and for more than fifty years, until King Philip's War, Plymouth colony was free from Indian wars.

Thus the Pilgrims found their permanent home. Under the wise government of William Bradford, guided by the true counsels of Elder Brewster, and led in military affairs by the brave Miles Standish, Plymouth colony quietly and steadily grew. After seventy years of separate existence, New Plymouth was joined to the Province of Massachusetts Bay, and to-day it is a part of the State of Massachusetts.

State what the Separatists desired.

Give an account of the arrest of the passengers.

Tell the story of William Bradford: as a young man; in his Leyden home; on the ocean; at Plymouth.

Describe the Mayflower Compact.

Tell how Squanto aided the Pilgrims; how the Indians threatened them.

Do we have religious freedom to-day? Are any religious meetings forbidden now in our country? How did the Pilgrims go from Scrooby to Amsterdam? How did they go from Amsterdam to Leyden? The Pilgrims were afraid that they would become like the Dutch; was this probable? Do immigrants to the United States grow to be like the rest of us?



Arrival of the Sea Ships at Salem

CHAPTER VIII

John Winthrop

1588-1649

THE Separatists, a few of whom came to Plymouth, were not the only English people who did not accept all the doctrines of the Church of England. A much larger number, called Puritans, still went to church with the rest of the English people. These were not at first persecuted, but, as they became more numerous and important, trouble arose between them and the king. When this quarrel began some of the leaders proposed to establish a colony for the Puritans, like the Pilgrim settlement at Plymouth.

A fishing-hamlet had been started at Cape Ann (1623) a few years after the landing of the Pilgrims, with Roger Conant in charge. The cape was bleak and rocky and not easily cultivated, and the settlement was a failure. One day, however, when Conant was paddling his canoe along the shore, he found a fertile piece of land stretching out into the sea between two little rivers. He thought that this peninsula, which the Indians called Naumkeag, would be a good place for a settlement, and in the spring (1626) he and fourteen companions moved over from Cape Ann and established themselves at Naumkeag.

Conant wrote for aid to a Puritan leader in Dorchester, England, named John White; he needed more colonists and supplies. Two years later John Endicott was sent over to Naumkeag with a hundred settlers, having a grant of all the land between Plymouth and New Hampshire. This latter colony

had been settled at Portsmouth and Dover the year that Cape Ann was first used as a fishing-station (1623).



GOVERNOR ENDICOTT'S PEAR-TREE—ONE THING IT SAW.

Governor Endicott brought over from England some pear-trees; and one of them is still living and blossoming in the town of Danvers. What a long life for a pear-tree—not far from three centuries! What changes that tree has witnessed! If it could think and talk, what a tale it could tell! A pretty story is told about a young couple,

who, walking home one Sunday after church service, stopped under the pear-tree. The young man picked from the tree a double stem having two blossoms on it. He asked the young lady if she would take one and let him keep the other. She consented and soon after became his wife. He was a minute-man and went to the battle of Lexington.

The next year, Endicott was rejoiced by the arrival of six vessels and four hundred colonists at Naumkeag, or Salem, as it was from this time called. A part of the newcomers remained at Salem, while others built a town on the peninsula of Charlestown. The next spring (1630) four more vessels sailed into Salem harbor, and before the year was over thirteen others arrived, bringing in all, that year, nearly fifteen hundred colonists. Some remained at Salem, others went to Charlestown, and others still built new villages, most of them near the present city of Boston.

The new governor, John Winthrop, came out in the spring of 1630. He was a little more than forty years old, and was an earnest, sincere Puritan. For several years he had felt certain that trouble was coming in England, and he was willing to leave home and friends behind him, in order to found a place of refuge for the Puritans. For the next nineteen years, until his death, he was the most important leader in the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

Winthrop left his family in England when he sailed for the new colony, and soon after his arrival he wrote one of his loving letters to his wife in the mother-country. "Blessed be the Lord, our good God and merciful Father, that yet hath preserved me in life and health. We had a long and troublesome passage, but the Lord made it safe and easy to us; and though we have met with many and great troubles, yet He hath pleased to uphold us."

We can learn from Winthrop's letters something of the discomforts which the settlers suffered. A week later he wrote to his wife Margaret: "Let us join in praising our merciful God that He upholds our hearts in all our troubles. And howsoever our fare be but coarse, in respect of what we formerly had (peas, puddings, and fish being our ordinary

diet), yet He makes it sweet and wholesome to us. Therefore be not discouraged, my dear wife, for I see no cause to repent of our coming hither, and thou seest that God can bring safe hither even the tenderest women and the youngest children."

Winthrop proposed that his family should come to New England the next summer, and he sent many directions as



MRS. WINTHROP PREPARING TO COME TO AMERICA.

to what they should bring. "Remember to come well furnished with linen, woollen, some more bedding, brass, and pewter. Be sure to be warm clothed and to have store of fresh provisions, meal, eggs, butter, oatmeal, peas, and fruits. Thou must be sure to bring no more company than so many as shall have full provision for a year and a half, for though the earth here be very fertile, yet there must be time and means to raise it; if we have corn enough we may live plentifully."

Before Mrs. Winthrop arrived in the colony, the governor had built a new town and made it the capital. Shawmut, or Trimountain, as the English at first called it, lay almost entirely surrounded by water, across which were the settlements of Charlestown, Newtown, Roxbury, and Dorchester. Here lived one man, William Blackstone by name, near a spring of clear, cold water. By his advice Winthrop chose this peninsula to be his home, and named it Boston, in honor of the old town of Boston on the eastern shore of England, from which many of the settlers had come.

The colony was soon well established, and during the next twenty years many thousand Puritans left England to try a life in a new world. Though the civil war in England for a time put the Puritans at the head of the government, the young king, Charles II., was placed upon the throne thirty years after the arrival of Winthrop in Boston.

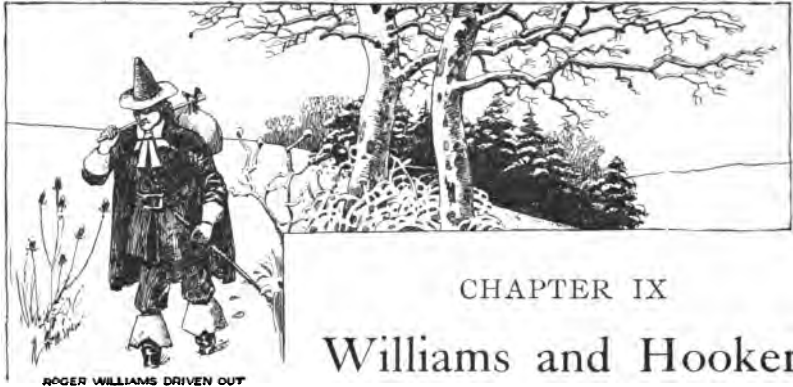
From this time on, the king opposed the Puritans in every way, especially those of Massachusetts. The dislike of the king for the colony and of the colony for the king continued until Massachusetts Bay joined with the other colonies in an opposition to the mother-country, which resulted in their independence and gave us the United States of America.

Give an account of the Puritans in England.

Tell the story of Roger Conant; of Governor Endicott; of the settlers of 1630; of the founding of Boston.

Describe Winthrop's letters.

The Puritans wished to make the church better; do you see anything in their name that shows this? The reason is given why the settlement at Cape Ann was a failure; what does this show to be most necessary in a new colony? Winthrop calls his food "coarse"; was it not good? Why did Winthrop ask his wife to bring "fresh provisions"? Why was Boston first called Trimountain?



ROGER WILLIAMS DRIVEN OUT

CHAPTER IX

Williams and Hooker

1599-1683

1586-1647

ROGER WILLIAMS, a young minister from England, arrived at Boston a few months after Winthrop. He was of a good family and was born in London; his father was James Williams, a merchant tailor, and his mother's name was Alice. Young Williams was a minister of the church at Salem for a little while, and then went to Plymouth, where he preached for more than two years. After this he returned to Salem, and was minister there for about two years and a half. During this time the government of Massachusetts Bay became bitterly opposed to Williams because of certain opinions which he held and preached.

Williams thought that the Massachusetts people ought to buy their lands from the Indians. He said that the king's gift was not enough, because the king did not own the land. He also taught that the government should punish for civil offences only. That is, Williams held that in religious matters every one ought to be permitted to think and decide for himself.

He was brought before the court, but he would not change. The court then passed a sentence of banishment,

ordering him to "depart out of this jurisdiction." In January, 1636, Williams left Salem, after bidding his wife and children good-by, and, with a staff in his hand and a pack upon his back, he began a long and perilous journey through the deep snows of the wilderness. Which way he went is not known, but we may suppose that on the first day, going around Boston on its western side, he reached Natick, where he found friendly Indians who gave him a resting-place in their wigwam over night.

Perhaps on the next day he made a short journey to Ponkapog, in the present town of Canton, where some friendly Indians resided. Think of him as he pushed on through the snow to a place near Taunton, hoping there to find lodgings with other Indians whom he knew.

But the snows were deep and the weather cold, the way was long, and night overtook him in the wilderness.

It may be that, finding a hollow tree, blown over by the wind, he crawled into it and during the night got such snatches of sleep as would come to him in his narrow bedroom upon so hard a bed. Finally, reaching the friendly Indians near Taunton, he may have spent a night with them, and then, on the day following, have gone on to his old friend, Massasoit, at Sowams, which is now the town of Warren, in Rhode Island.



FIRST CHURCH AT SALEM WHERE WILLIAMS
PREACHED (STILL STANDING).

Here Williams remained for three months or more, making his home with Massasoit, but visiting the neighboring Indians from place to place. When the springtime came on some of his friends joined him, and Williams looked about for the best place to make a settlement. In a small canoe he



ROGER WILLIAMS MEETING FRIENDLY INDIANS
AT SLATE ROCK.

crossed the Seekonk River with five companions. At Slate Rock, which is on the east side of the city of Providence, he was met by friendly Indians, who greeted him with the welcome, "What cheer, Nctop, what cheer!" This means, "How do you do, good friend, how do you do?"

Williams paddled around the point of land and made a settlement near a beautiful spring of water. Here was begun a new settlement, a new town, a new colony, and

one of the thirteen original United States. Others soon joined him, and a government was established by a written agreement, which read as follows: "We, whose names are here underwritten, do promise to subject ourselves to all such orders or agreements as shall be made for the public good of the body, in an orderly way, by the major consent of the present inhabitants and such others whom they shall admit unto the same—*only in civil things.*"

“Only in civil things” means that the public laws shall not interfere with a man’s religious belief. Here, first in the whole world, was established a government upon the principle of full religious liberty. From that time till the present, Rhode Island has been noted for religious freedom. Roger Williams, therefore, deserves the title of “the great apostle of religious freedom.”

Two years after Roger Williams came to Boston, Thomas Hooker, another minister, arrived. Within six weeks after he had landed he was chosen pastor of the church at Newtown, now Cambridge. Hooker was a man of great ability and a very attractive preacher. He at once took high rank among the learned men of Massachusetts, interesting himself in all the important political and religious movements of the colony.

Hooker did not agree with Winthrop. He believed that all the people ought to take part in the government, while Winthrop thought that a large part of them were unfit to govern. Winthrop’s idea favored an aristocracy, a government by a few, the better people; Hooker thought the government should be a democracy, a government by all the people.

Hooker did not stop to quarrel with Winthrop, but, a few months after Williams had gone to Providence (1636), he, with a great company, comprising a large part of the inhabitants of the three towns, Cambridge, Dorchester, and Watertown, left the Bay Colony and set out on a long and difficult journey to the Connecticut River.

What a journey that was from Boston to Hartford! Through a trackless wilderness, across streams, they traveled, driving their cattle before them and living during the whole journey as best they could upon the milk of their cows and whatever they could find upon the way.

Three years later the Connecticut settlers adopted a "Body of Fundamental Laws," doubtless drawn up by Hooker.

The adoption of this document, and the founding of their



HOOKER'S EXPEDITION TO CONNECTICUT.

government upon it, is the first case in the history of the world where a *written constitution*, which established and put in operation a new government, was framed and adopted by the people. It gave equal rights to all citizens, and promised freedom and protection to all under the laws which the people should adopt.

Roger Williams and Thomas Hooker must be considered among the foremost men of their age. They laid the real foundations of American liberty.

Four of the six States afterward forming New England were now settled. After a time Plymouth was united to the Bay Colony, and the two thus brought together made the colony of Massachusetts. Providence Colony united with

Newport Colony, and received a charter from Charles II. Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield for a time formed the Connecticut River Colony, while settlements about New Haven made the New Haven Colony. At a later date these two colonies were united and became the Colony of Connecticut.

Give an account of Williams' early life.

State the trouble between Massachusetts and Williams.

Describe his possible wanderings.

Give an account of the founding of Providence.

Explain what is meant by "religious freedom."

State why Hooker left Massachusetts Bay.

Describe the journey and its results.

Was Williams right in his ideas about the lands? Was he right in his belief in religious freedom? How did Williams know the Indians at Taunton? Williams once wrote that he was "tossed for fourteen weeks, not knowing what bed or bread did mean"; where do you suppose he spent most of that time? Why was the city which Williams founded called Providence? What do you understand by a "trackless wilderness"? What were the four New England States? How many New England colonies were there at first?



ON NARRAGANSETT BAY.



CHAPTER X

Peter Stuyvesant

1602-1682

THE same year that Pastor Robinson and the Pilgrims moved from one city in Holland to another (1609), the Dutch East India Company sent out Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in a vessel called the *Half-Moon*, to search for a nearer passage to Asia. Hudson sailed from Holland in the month of April, and reached the cold waters north of Russia so early in the season that masses of ice and broken icebergs prevented his farther advance.

He then decided to seek a western passage, as he could not go east, and he turned his vessel toward Greenland. He passed along Newfoundland, and continued southward along the coast of America, seeking for some strait or passage into the land which might lead through to the Pacific Ocean. At last he reached a point opposite the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Not caring to visit the two-year-old colony at Jamestown, Hudson sailed north again, made the first visit to Delaware Bay, and cast anchor in New York Harbor.

For the first time Europeans viewed the spot where now stands Greater New York, one of the largest cities in the world. For the first time a vessel sailed up the river past the

Palisades and the Highlands, almost to the head of navigation where the city of Albany now is situated. For the first time the Indians on the banks of this river looked upon a vessel bearing sails, and, filled with curiosity, they flocked to the *Half-Moon* in great numbers.

To this river Hudson gave his own name. Two months earlier Samuel de Champlain had gone south from Quebec, and



HUDSON SAILING UP THE RIVER.

named for himself the great lake separating New York from Vermont. So these two men, one in the employ of the Dutch and the other sent out by France, began the exploration of the great region which is now the State of New York. Hudson entered from the south, and Champlain from

the north. They came within a hundred miles of each other.

Hudson returned to Holland and reported the results of his voyage. He had found neither the northeast nor the northwest passage to India, but he had discovered the Hudson River. He told the Dutch people about the fine harbor and the fertile country; he stated that the Indians were kindly, and that the woods were filled with fur-bearing animals; and he described the grandeur and beauty of the scenery.

Because of the voyage of Hudson in the *Half-Moon*, the Dutch claimed the entire territory between the Connecticut and the Delaware rivers. To this country they gave the name of New Netherland. Forts and trading-posts were built (1614), one on the island of Manhattan, another on the Hudson River near Albany, and a third on the Delaware River. Three years after the Pilgrims sailed for America, fifty families arrived in the Dutch colony (1623), the larger part of whom settled at New Amsterdam and the rest at Fort Orange or Albany.

A little later the governor, Peter Minuit, bought the entire island of Manhattan from the Indians for the small sum of twenty-four dollars.

The Dutch did not always use the best judgment in the choice of the governors who were sent over to take charge of the colony. Disputes arose continually between the governors and the great land-owners, or "patroons." The Indians were often harshly treated, and they in turn murdered the Dutch. Yet, little by little, the colony grew, until finally a governor arrived who succeeded in placing it on a firm footing.

Peter Stuyvesant was forty-five years of age when he was given the charge of New Netherland. While a young man he had entered the military service of Holland and had

served loyally and faithfully, losing a leg in an attack upon a Portuguese fort. He was a proud man, with an overbearing temper which could bear no opposition. He believed that a governor should have absolute power, as is shown by his answer to citizens who brought complaints against the former governor. He haughtily said: "It is treason to petition against one's magistrates, whether there be cause or not."

In spite of his temper and his belief in his own absolute power, Peter Stuyvesant proved himself well able to manage the affairs of the colony. The greatest danger to be feared was from the Indians. Stuyvesant forbade the sale of liquor or firearms to the red men, and carefully considered

their welfare in all his dealings with them. He succeeded in making the Indians his friends, and perhaps thereby saved his colony from destruction.

He next turned his attention to promoting the well-being of the colonists. He established a system of schools; he built a market and began a series of annual cattle-fairs; he advised the building of better houses and taverns, and made New Amsterdam almost a model town. He enforced a careful observance of the Sabbath, but yielded religious tolerance to all persons.



STUYVESANT AND THE PETITIONERS.

As a result of his wise direction we read that: "The colony increased; children swarmed in every village; new modes of activity were devised; lumber was shipped to France; the whale pursued off the coast; the vine, the mulberry, planted; flocks of sheep as well as of cattle were multiplied.

"'This happily situated province,' said its inhabitants, 'may become the granary of our Fatherland; should our Netherlands be wasted by grievous wars, it will offer our countrymen a safe retreat; by God's blessing we shall in a few years become a mighty people.'"

In the midst of its prosperity the colony of New Netherland continually quarreled with its neighbors. West and south of the Delaware River lay the little settlement of New Sweden. Queen Christina of Sweden had sent out a colony under the lead of the Dutchman, Peter Minuit (1638). Minuit bought land of the Indians on the west bank of the Delaware River and built Fort Christiana, where the city of Wilmington now stands.

The Dutch were angry at the coming of the Swedes, but they were too weak at the time to oppose them in any way except by words. After the arrival of Stuyvesant as governor, however, the Dutch became much stronger and grew to despise the little Swedish colony. Finally Stuyvesant built Fort Casimir, on the western bank of the Delaware, within five miles of Fort Christiana, and within the territory which the Swedes had bought from the Indians.

The quarrel now became something more than words. The Swedes made an attack upon Fort Casimir and captured it. The next year Stuyvesant sailed from New Amsterdam, with six vessels and seven hundred men, to punish the rash people of New Sweden. He not only recaptured Fort Casi-

mir, but he also took Fort Christiana, and New Sweden ceased to exist as a separate colony.

New Netherland had now become apparently a well-established colony. It claimed all the territory of the present States of New York, New Jersey, and Delaware, and also the western bank of the Delaware River, in Pennsylvania. Suddenly the power of Stuyvesant and the Dutch



THE ENGLISH FLEET APPEARING AT NEW AMSTERDAM.

came to an end. One day an English fleet quietly sailed into New Amsterdam Harbor.

England and Holland were at peace with each other, but the English commander of the fleet, Colonel Nichols, sent a letter to Fort Manhattan, requiring Stuyvesant immediately to yield the fort and turn over the government to the English. He announced that Charles II., King of England, claimed all the east coast of America because of Cabot's discovery, more than a hundred and fifty years before.

Nichols added that King Charles had given the territory

between the Connecticut and Maryland to his brother James, the Duke of York, who had sent this fleet to take possession of the country.

From the moment that the English vessels were first seen, Stuyvesant began preparations for defence. He ordered all the able-bodied men to enrol as soldiers or to work upon the fortifications. New guns were mounted and the shores patrolled. But this effort came too late. The people saw that they could not successfully resist the English, and they entered into the work half-heartedly. Besides, many English people had settled among the Dutch, and these were ready to welcome an English government.

A second letter reached Stuyvesant and his council. This offered very favorable terms. It stated that only a change in flag and governor would be required. The council advised that the letter be made public and the people permitted to decide what they would do. At this Stuyvesant became very angry, declaring that the people had nothing to do with it. He was the governor and he would not surrender. He even tore the letter into small pieces, to prevent its being read to the people.

The council put the parts together again, made a fresh copy of the letter, and published it. The people were so strongly in favor of yielding that six commissioners were sent to treat with Colonel Nichols. Terms of surrender were written and Stuyvesant was compelled to sign them.

Thus, without bloodshed and without even serious disturbance, New Netherland was lost to Holland, and New York became an English colony (1660). The Duke of York gave New Jersey to two of his friends, and afterward sold Delaware to William Penn. In 1776 these three colonies entered the Union as three States.

The Dutch people continued to live in New York and did not seem to realize the change in government. Stuyvesant himself retired to his farm, or 'bowerie,' of six hundred acres. His house was near the present corner of Third Avenue and Twelfth Street, and his farm gave the name to one of New York's famous streets. His garden was noted throughout the city, and a pear-tree, which he had brought over from Europe, continued to thrive for two hundred years. This pear-tree, protected by an iron railing and often visited as an historical relic, stood until it was blown down thirty years ago.

Stuyvesant spent the rest of his life on this farm, and died at the ripe age of eighty.

Describe Hudson's voyage: on the ocean; on the river; home again.

Give an account of Champlain.

Tell the story of the settlement of New Amsterdam; of its poor governors and its troubles.

Give an account of Stuyvesant: as a soldier; as a governor.

Tell the story of the capture of New Sweden; of the capture of New Netherland.

Has a northwest passage yet been found? Do you know of any modern plans for a shorter western water-passage from Europe to Asia? What was the principal reason for colonizing New Netherland? Were Stuyvesant and Hooker much alike? Had Sweden any right to make a colony? Would Roger Williams have said that she had a right? Which had the better claim to the land between Connecticut and Maryland, Holland or England? How many Colonies have we now read about? How many of the original thirteen States?



LORD BALTIMORE



CHAPTER XI

Lord Baltimore

1582-1632

A FEW years before Walter Raleigh sent out his colonies to Roanoke Island, George Calvert was born in Yorkshire, England. When barely seventeen years of age he was graduated from the University of Oxford. After a few years spent in travel he became the private secretary of Sir Robert Cecil, the favorite statesman of Queen Elizabeth. When James I. was king of England, Calvert was made a member of his private council, was knighted, and later was appointed to one of the highest offices in the English government.

Sir George Calvert here showed himself to be exact and careful in all his work. In his high office he naturally made many enemies, but even they always acknowledged his honesty and purity. He was a most sincere lover of his country, but after serving it faithfully for six years he resigned and asked permission from the king to retire from public life. He did this because he had become a Roman Catholic and could no longer uphold the Church of England. The king granted his request and honored his faithful servant by making him Baron of Baltimore, in Ireland.

The Pilgrims had fled to Holland and then to Plymouth because they would not obey the rules of the Church of England. The Puritans had established Massachusetts Bay as a place of refuge from religious persecution. At the same time the Roman Catholics in England were also harshly treated, but they had no place to which they might go. Lord Baltimore had for years been interested in the new colonies in America, and now that he had more leisure he wished that he might make a home for Catholics also.

King James and his son, King Charles, still remained friendly to Lord Baltimore, even though he had changed his church. Therefore when he purchased a part of the island of Newfoundland, called Avalon, he easily obtained permission from King Charles to colonize it. He sent out a colony the year after Plymouth was settled,

and buildings were erected and the land cultivated. A few years later he himself visited Avalon, but the climate was so cold that he was greatly discouraged. He gave up the colony and sailed for Virginia.

Baltimore was a Catholic, and the Virginians did not like Catholics. Therefore life in Jamestown was unpleasant for him, and he returned to England. He was still anxious to form a colony, and persuaded King Charles to give him land on both sides of Chesapeake Bay, north of the Potomac River. Before the deed was signed Baltimore died, and his son, Cecil



WHERE BALTIMORE STARTED HIS COLONY.

Calvert, became Lord Baltimore and received the grant in his father's stead.

This was one of the largest free gifts of land ever made to any one man. The grant included the present State of Maryland and even much more territory. And what do you think the king required of Baltimore and his children in payment for this land? All he asked was that they would give to him at Windsor Castle every year two Indian arrows.

Not a very high rent, it is true; but this yearly present showed that the king still claimed a higher power over the new province than the proprietor, Lord Baltimore.

Cecil Calvert at once began preparations to send over a colony. He could not go himself, and therefore put his brother Leonard in command. Two vessels—one, the *Ark*, of large size, and the other, the *Dove*, much smaller—sailed in November, with about three hundred colonists. The colony was to be a refuge for persecuted Catholics, but many of the voyagers were Protestants, and Calvert showed his sense of justice by ordering that no one should trouble another on account of the way in which he tried to worship God.

For four months the two vessels continued on their course to the new province of Maryland, so named in honor of the queen of England, Henrietta Maria. The little company landed at an island in the Potomac River and set up a cross, claiming the country for Christ and for England. Then the *Dove* was sent farther up the river to seek for a spot for a village. The Potomac Indians were astonished when they saw the little vessel, and exclaimed that they would like to see the tree from which that great canoe was hollowed out; for they knew nothing of fastening different pieces of timber together.

Leonard Calvert decided not to settle so far from the

ocean. He was not sure what the Indian chieftain had meant in his mysterious answer to his question. Calvert had asked him: "Shall we stay here or shall we go back?" The chief had replied: "You may do as you think best." The governor, accordingly, floated down the Potomac and finally built a village at St. Mary's (1634), two years before Roger



A MARYLAND CAVALIER PROTECTING A PURITAN FROM ABUSE.

Williams fled from Massachusetts Bay and founded Providence and Rhode Island.

Lord Baltimore's greatest wish was that the colony should be successful and should furnish a safe retreat for Catholics. He had no dislike for any who might not agree with his own religious views. He was a broad-minded man, willing that Protestants and Catholics alike should join in his settlement. Therefore, from the very beginning, although there was no law to that effect, Baltimore secured religious toleration in his colony. By this is meant that no one was punished or troubled for his religious beliefs.

Thus it was that Maryland was the first colony to allow

its colonists to worship God as they wished. Rhode Island, two years later, established by law perfect freedom in all religious matters; Pennsylvania, founded fifty years afterward, also granted religious freedom. These three colonies differed from the others in this respect. Now, the religious liberty of Lord Baltimore, of Roger Williams, and of William Penn, has become the law in each of the forty-five States of our Union.

Maryland was frequently in difficulties with the neighboring colonies, but most of the quarrels were quietly settled. The boundary line with Pennsylvania caused much trouble, but the two colonies finally accepted the line laid out by two surveyors, Mason and Dixon. This boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland has been called Mason and Dixon's line even to the present time. Maryland remained in the possession of the Baltimores most of the time, until, with the other colonies, it became independent in 1776.

Give an account of the life of George Calvert until he became Lord Baltimore.

Tell the story of the Avalon colony.

Give accounts of the grant of Maryland; of the voyage of Leonard Calvert; of the settlement.

Explain the "religious toleration" of Maryland.

Newfoundland is not farther north than England; why did its cold discourage Calvert? Was the grant of Maryland pleasing to Virginia? For what reasons? Why did Leonard Calvert decide to settle near the coast? Do you think that the Indian chieftain wanted Calvert to stay? Name the colonies that you have already studied, in the order in which they were settled, without giving dates.



CHAPTER XII

William Penn

1644-1718

FORTY years after the Scrooby band of Separatists fled from England to escape persecution, George Fox began to preach new religious doctrines, that brought to him and his followers even more severe persecution. Like the Separatists, Fox demanded the right to worship God as seemed to him best. He even asked for a simpler form of worship than the Pilgrims had sought. He would give to everybody equal rights, and he claimed that God only was his superior.

The company of earnest believers who followed the teaching of George Fox called themselves "Friends." Their peculiar religious beliefs brought them into constant trouble. They were nicknamed Quakers, and soon were commonly known by that name.

They were punished for refusing to show reverence to the king by removing their hats in his presence. They were persecuted because they preached their doctrines whenever they found an opportunity. They were whipped and imprisoned; they were confined in filthy dungeons; they were fined and sold as servants.

The Quakers were punished as severely in the colonies as in England itself. Even those people who had left England because of religious persecution forgot the Golden Rule, and treated the Quakers worse, if anything, than they themselves had been treated.

Massachusetts and Connecticut began by banishing the Quakers and ordering them not to return. When they did come back and continue to preach, they were punished terribly, and finally some of them were put to death. After this, persecution became less severe, the people began to see more of good and less of harm in the Quaker ideas than they had supposed, and in time all opposition to them disappeared.

One of the most important followers of George Fox, and one who did more for the despised Quakers than any one else could have done, was William Penn. This famous man was born just before Fox announced the new doctrines. While a student at Oxford University, Penn was led by a Quaker preacher so far to accept the belief of the Friends that he was expelled from college. His father, a distinguished naval officer, was extremely angry with his son and refused to help him in any way. After a time, however, young William obtained his father's permission to travel and study, and he spent a few years abroad.

One day, while traveling in Ireland, Penn learned that his old Oxford friend, the Quaker preacher, Thomas Loe, was to speak in the neighborhood. Penn determined to hear him again, and the sermon so moved him that he decided to join the despised and persecuted band. When it began to be reported in the high society in which the Penn family was prominent that "William Penn was a Quaker again or some very melancholy thing," his father refused to have anything more to do with him. Time and again this sincere Quaker

was fined and imprisoned, but all the opposition only increased his enthusiasm.

After his father's death, Penn received his property. He now became interested in America, as he thought that in that new world, across the ocean, it might be possible to establish a home for the persecuted Friends. In spite of the unpopularity of his religious belief, Penn had many powerful friends, among whom was the king's brother, James, the Duke of York.

It happened that Penn found himself one of the owners of that part of New Jersey which was called West Jersey. His influence here became very great, but not so great as if he had been the sole owner. He began to think about that rich and fertile territory



PENN AS A COURTIER BEFORE KING CHARLES.

which lay across the Delaware River. His father had performed many services for the king of England, who, in consequence, owed him sixteen thousand pounds. Penn feared that this debt might never be paid, and he accordingly proposed to King Charles to give him land across the Delaware in place of the money due him.

"After many waitings, watchings, solicitings, and disputes in council," wrote Penn, "this day my country was confirmed to me under the great seal of England."

Penn had great hopes for the future of his new province. He wrote again: "God will bless and make it the seed of a

nation. I shall have a tender care of the government, that it will be well laid at first."

He at once sent out a company of emigrants, and with them instructions as to the founding of a city. He was anxious to have the capital of his province a more beautiful and healthy town than the crowded cities of Europe he knew so well. He directed that a site for the city should be chosen



A PENNSYLVANIA MANOR HOUSE.

on the Delaware at some point where "it is most navigable, high, dry, and healthy; that is, where most ships can best ride, of deepest draught of water, if possible, to load or unload at the bank or key-side without boating or lightening of it." Here he planned a large and pleasant city, as he hoped, for all future time.

Penn was a simple Quaker and wished to have nothing done that

might make him proud or seem to be proud. He suggested that the name of New Wales be given to the province, as it was hilly like Wales. But the king's secretary, "although a Welshman," refused to accept that name.

Penn next proposed Sylvania, or the forest country, and the secretary prefixed the syllable Penn to it. Penn wrote: "Though I much opposed it and went to the king to have it struck out and altered, he said it was past and would take it on him." The name Pennsylvania was thus given to the col-

ony in honor of the admiral, Penn's father. Penn had his own way, however, in naming the new city. He called it Philadelphia, or City of Brotherly Love.

The next year Penn, with a company of a hundred settlers, sailed from England. The voyage was long and gloomy, nearly one-third of the passengers dying before the Delaware was reached. Penn landed in Newcastle in October and was joyfully welcomed, not only by the Quakers who had arrived before him, but also by the Swedes, the Dutch, and the earlier English colonists. From Newcastle Penn proceeded slowly up the Delaware River to the spot which had been chosen for the new city.

In a few months, houses began to appear and streets to be laid out in Philadelphia (1683). Penn had purchased the ground from the Swedes and was delighted with the spot. He said that the situation was "not surpassed by one among all the many places I have seen in the world." This was to be the city of brotherly love indeed, "the city of refuge, the mansion of freedom, the home of humanity."

Penn's love for his fellow-men was not limited to his countrymen nor to European white men. One of his first steps was to bring about a meeting with the Indians, in which a treaty of friendship could be arranged. A large elm-tree, at Shackamaxon, not far from the centre of the new city, was chosen as the place for the interview. Here Penn made a speech which won the friendship of the red men.

Penn told them: "I will not call you children, for parents sometimes chide their children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers differ. We are the same as if one man's body were to be divided into two parts; we are all one flesh and blood." The Indians replied: "We will live in love

with William Penn and his children as long as the moon and the sun shall endure."

Thus was established the province of Pennsylvania, the twelfth of the thirteen English colonies. King Charles had



PENN'S TALK WITH THE INDIANS.

given a tract of land south of Virginia to eight of his friends. This was called Carolina, and later was divided and became North Carolina and South Carolina. Fifty years after Penn had landed at Newcastle, James Oglethorpe established the thirteenth colony (1733), Georgia, the youngest of the company, but now the "Empire State of the South." The thirteen colonies, though engaged

now and then in struggles with their governors, frequently in conflict with the red men, and at times at war with their French and Spanish neighbors, nevertheless steadily grew and developed until they were ready to be a nation by themselves.

Tell the story of George Fox and the Quakers.

Give an account of how William Penn became a Quaker.

Describe the grant of Pennsylvania; the founding of Philadelphia; the treatment of the Indians.

What religious bodies were persecuted in England? What colonies were founded as refuges for persecuted people? Are any of these people persecuted in our country to-day? Why could Penn give great aid to the Quakers? Was Penn's choice of a capital for his colony wise? Name the thirteen colonies in the order of their settlement.



CHAPTER XIII

King Philip

—1676

THE character and condition of the Indian tribes and their relation to the colonies form an important subject in New England history. In the earliest times the settlers and the Indians were at peace with each other. Very naturally differences sprang up, and after a while Indian wars followed.

The earliest important Indian war was with the Pequots, about the time that Hooker founded Hartford. The white settlers were so few in number and were so scattered that there was great danger that the Indians would overcome them and blot out their settlements. The Pequots, however, were finally destroyed, and, soon after, the colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven formed a league to protect themselves against the Indians. They called themselves "The United Colonies of New England."

Forty years of peace with the Indians followed the destruction of the Pequots. This was broken by "King Philip's War."

King Philip, as he was usually called, was the son and successor of Massasoit, who had been the chief of the Poka-

nokets or Wampanoags. This was a powerful tribe living in Plymouth Colony and along the borders of Rhode Island. Most of Rhode Island was occupied by the Narragansetts. King Philip and the Pokanokets attempted to induce the Narragansetts to join them in a war against the white men, but Roger Williams was able to persuade them not to do so.

This was a great blow to King Philip, and probably saved New England from being entirely destroyed. As it was, many towns in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Plymouth were burned by the Indians. The war was brought to an end by the death of King Philip near his old home, at Mt. Hope, in Bristol, Rhode Island, just across the bay from Fall River. After his death the remnants of his army that escaped started in retreat across the country northward under Chief Annawan.

Annawan and his little army were captured by Benjamin Church. This was accomplished by a bold strategem, the account of which is romantic and interesting. Annawan and his followers, fifty or sixty in number, had gone into camp for the night at the foot of a great rock in Rehoboth, a few miles west of Taunton. On one side of their camp was this perpendicular rock, and on the other sides a great swamp covered with thick trees and bushes.

Captain Church, with a few men and two or three friendly Indians, crawled out upon this rock after dark and looked down upon Annawan's camp. The rock was fifty or sixty feet high. There was no way of approach but to climb down the steep side. Church had an old Indian and his daughter go down foremost with their baskets at their backs, so that Annawan, if he should see them, would not suspect any harm. In the shadow of these two and their baskets, Church and his companions crept down also. Fortunately an Indian

woman was pounding corn in a mortar, the noise of which prevented their movement being heard. On reaching the foot of the rock, Church stepped over Annawan's son and sprang to the spot where the Indians had stacked their muskets.

The old Indian chief started up and cried out, "Howoh! howoh!" This means, "I am taken." Seeing no way of escape, he threw himself back upon the ground and lay silent until Captain Church had secured all the arms. Then Church sent his friendly Indians to those beyond to tell them that their chieftain, Annawan, was taken, and if they would surrender peaceably they should have good quarter, but if they attempted to escape they would all be slain. The Indians, thoroughly disheartened, gave up their arms, both guns and hatchets, which were immediately carried to Captain Church.

Having posted his guards, Church turned to Annawan and asked, "What have you for supper?" The Indian women now prepared supper for Church and his men. Annawan asked Church whether he would eat "cow-beef" or "horse-beef." The captain told him that "cow-beef" would be more acceptable. They made their supper, therefore, from "cow-beef" and dried green corn. The Indians had no salt, but Captain Church had brought some with him and this seasoned his meat.

Church and Annawan now laid themselves down, but they both remained wide awake while the rest of the company were fast asleep. These two captains—one an Indian, the other a white man—lay upon the ground looking at each other perhaps an hour. Captain Church said nothing, because he could not speak the Indian language, and he thought Annawan could not speak English. At length the Indian

arose, threw off his blanket, and walked away from the company back into the woods. Church moved close to the guns and rolled himself over next to young Annawan, so that if the Indian should attempt to shoot him his son would be in danger.

The moon was now shining brightly, and after a while he saw Annawan coming toward him with something in his



MARCHING OFF ANNAWAN AS A PRISONER OF WAR.

hands. Annawan fell upon his knees before the captain and said in English: "Great captain! you have killed Philip and conquered his country. I believe that I and my company are the last that war against the English. You have ended the war, and these things belong to you."

Opening his pack, he pulled out Philip's belt, nine inches broad, wrought in various figures, flowers, and pictures of

many birds and beasts made with black and white wampum.

This belt when hung upon Captain Church's shoulders reached to his ankles. Annawan then handed him another belt of wampum, wrought after the same manner, which Philip was accustomed to wear upon his head. It had two flags on the hinder part which hung down on his back, and another small belt with a star upon the end of it which he used to hang upon his breast. These were all edged with red hair, which Annawan said came from the Mohawk country. He then pulled out two horns of glazed powder and a red cloth blanket.

Annawan told Captain Church that these were Philip's royalties, and he thought himself happy in presenting them to Church, as he was now entitled to them. They spent the remainder of the night in conversation with each other. Annawan gave Captain Church a graphic account of his successes in former wars.

What a picture! These two captains—one the conqueror, the other the vanquished—talking all night; and in the morning the one with his few men marching the other with his larger company to Taunton as prisoners of war!

King Philip's War was ended. It had lasted a little more than one year, but thirteen villages had been burned to ashes and others partially destroyed, and more than five hundred white settlers had been killed.

Though the Indians hated the white men and often murdered them without reason, yet they would show strong and true friendship to such as had been friendly to them. Hugh Cole lived in Swansea, near Mount Hope. He had always been friendly to the Indians and had made King Philip his friend. Before the war broke out, Philip sent word to Cole that trouble was ahead, but that no harm should come to him

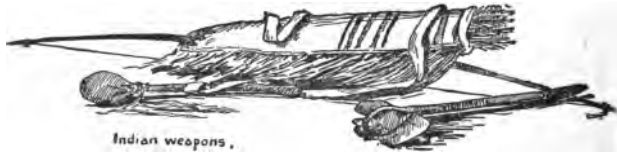
or his family. A little later Philip sent another messenger, saying that he could not restrain his young men and Cole must take care of himself. He went to a place of safety, but the Indians did not burn his house, and no one of the Coles was ever molested by the Indians in all that terrible war.

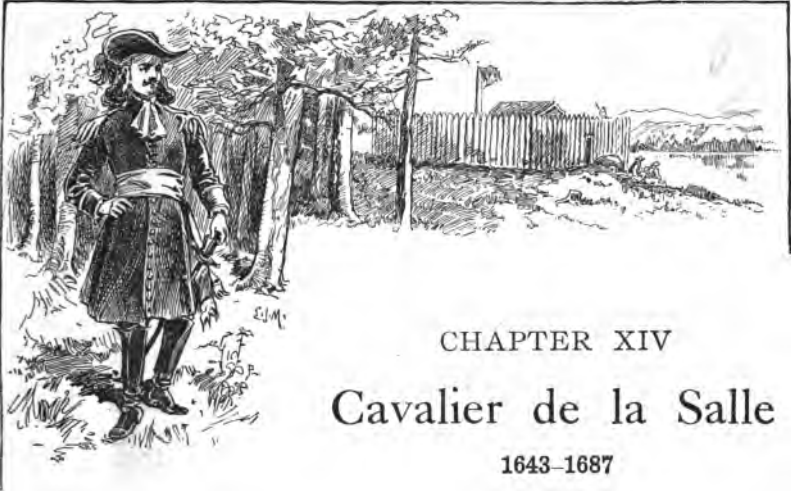
Describe the Pequot War; King Philip's War.

Tell the story of the capture of Annawan; of his gift to Captain Church.

Give an account of Hugh Cole.

What colonies were not admitted to the "United Colonies of New England"? Why could Roger Williams persuade the Narragansetts not to aid Philip? Why did Annawan yield so easily? Why did neither Church nor Annawan sleep? What is meant by "royalties"? Had the Indians reason for hating the white men?





CHAPTER XIV

Cavalier de la Salle

1643-1687

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN ascended the St. Lawrence early in the seventeenth century, and was delighted with the great attractions of the river and the charming scenery of the country. He built the City of Quebec the year after the settlement of Jamestown, and has therefore been called the "Founder of New France." He was anxious to establish a French empire and the Roman Catholic faith in this new world.

Other French leaders followed Champlain, and in time Montreal, Detroit, and Fort Mackinaw were built. Many French priests came to New France and established missions among the Indians. French fur-traders also made friendship with the red men, in order to obtain supplies of furs. These priests and traders were active in exploring the country, and, while the English colonists remained near the Atlantic coast, pushed farther and farther inland.

Father Marquette discovered the upper Mississippi just before King Philip's War in New England. He floated down the great river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas. Father

Hennepin pushed his canoe up the Mississippi until he saw the Falls of St. Anthony, at what is now known as Minneapolis. The greatest of the French explorers was Cavalier de la Salle, who gave to France, by his discoveries, her claim to the great Mississippi valley.

La Salle's life was filled with hardships and romantic adventures. He first went to Canada when he was twenty-three years of age. He engaged in the fur-trade and made many excursions back into the country among the Indian tribes.



THE FIRST VESSEL ON THE LAKES.

Think of this Frenchman as, with a few pioneers to help him, he built a vessel of sixty tons on Lake Erie. In this craft he sailed from Lake Erie, past Fort Detroit, up Lake Huron, by Fort Mackinaw, and through Lake Michigan. He built a fort near the site of the present city of Peoria.

This fort he hoped to make a centre around which a large French colony might grow.

But misfortunes met him on every hand. His vessel was lost on a voyage eastward to get supplies for the new settlement. La Salle was compelled to return to Canada on foot to obtain the needed food and ammunition, and found there that enemies were opposing him at every step. While in Quebec, Indians destroyed his fort at Peoria.

Not discouraged, but eager as ever, La Salle again started

for the Mississippi Valley. He built another fort, and, leaving a garrison to defend it, descended the Mississippi River in canoes. This river, below the Arkansas, had never before been explored by a European. La Salle continued southward until he reached the mouth of the river. Here with imposing ceremonies he took possession of the country in the name of France.

In honor of his king, Louis XIV., La Salle named this great valley Louisiana. The valley of the St. Lawrence, as we have seen, also belonged to France, and was called Canada. These two valleys made up the whole region of North America that was claimed by France, and were together called New France.

La Salle and his party returned northward, paddling up the river and then crossing the country to Canada. Now La Salle sailed for France, to obtain a commission to plant a French colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. He was determined that the fertile valley of this greatest of all rivers should belong to France. He obtained his commission, and in four vessels set sail for the Gulf of Mexico.

In these vessels he carried colonists and supplies, with the intention of making permanent settlements. He was disappointed in the character of his men. Many of his soldiers were merely vagabonds and beggars from the streets, who had never handled muskets. Many of his workmen, whom he supposed were skilled mechanics, proved to be totally ignorant of the trades for which they were employed. La Salle had almost a constant quarrel with Beaujeu, his captain.

The expedition reached the Gulf of Mexico, and La Salle tried to find the mouth of the Mississippi. This he failed to do, and finally the whole company landed in what is now

died in the vigor of life, in the midst of his career and labors, without the consolation of having seen their results." This great Frenchman deserved a better outcome for his life's work.

But he had done great things for France. He—and we might almost say he alone—had by his great daring and his repeated explorations given to his king the entire valley of the Mississippi River from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains.

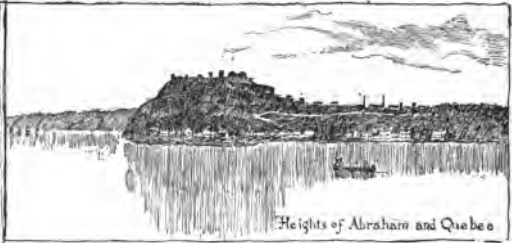
Give an account of the settlement of Canada.

Describe La Salle's trip to Illinois; his journey down the Mississippi River; his search for its mouth; his failure and death.

What was the principal business of the French in Canada? Was this like that of the men in the English colonies? Who first discovered the Mississippi River? Who first sailed down this river? Who discovered its mouth? What was the principal cause of La Salle's final failure?



A Birch Bark Canoe



CHAPTER XV

James Wolfe

1727-1759

FOR a hundred and fifty years a contest went on between the kings of France, Spain, and Great Britain, to see which of them should finally control America.

At the middle of the eighteenth century, France held the valley of the St. Lawrence and the entire valley of the Mississippi, from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains. These two great valleys formed by far the best portion of the continent. Spain had Florida, Mexico, and the country farther south. The English provinces lay along the Atlantic coast from Maine to Georgia.

This contest was finally ended by a war which has usually been called the French and Indian War. This name means that it was the war of the English colonies, supported by the mother-country, Great Britain, against France, with her American settlers in these two great valleys and her allies among the Indian tribes. The war closed with the battle of Quebec.

This battle was not a great one in numbers, but it was great in its results. General Wolfe, who commanded the British army, brought into the engagement but little more

than three thousand men, while the French opposed him with nearly seven thousand. Probably there were less than ten thousand men actively engaged, but it was one of the decisive battles of the world, because of the changes which it made in the future history of North America.

Gen. James Wolfe was one of England's distinguished soldiers. His father was Gen. Edward Wolfe, also an officer of distinction in the British army, who had risen from grade to grade until he had attained the rank of major-general.

James was bred to the army, being adjutant of his regiment when he was but sixteen years of age, a lieutenant-colonel at twenty-three, a brigadier-general at thirty-one, and a major-general at thirty-two. He was his mother's boy, delicate, affectionate, thoughtful, and refined. At one time he wrote to her: "The greatest happiness that I wish for is to see you happy. If you stay much at home I will come and shut myself up with you for three weeks or a month and play at piquet; and you shall laugh at my short red hair as much as you please."

How do you suppose this young man looked when he commanded the British army at Quebec, wearing the title of major-general? "The forehead and chin receded; the nose, slightly upturned, formed with the other features the point of an obtuse triangle; the mouth was by no means shaped to express resolution; and nothing but the clear, bright, and piercing eye bespoke the spirit within. On his head he wore a black three-cornered hat; his red hair was tied in a queue behind; his narrow shoulders, slender body, and long, thin limbs were cased in a scarlet frock, with broad cuffs, and ample skirts that reached the knee; while on his left arm he wore a band of crape in mourn-

ing for his father, of whose death he had heard a few days before.

The time had come for his decisive battle. His small army had tried again and again to bring on the contest. The French occupied the Heights of Quebec, and for a long time the English could not gain an approach. Flags of truce sometimes passed between the two armies. At one time a Frenchman said: "You will demolish the town, no doubt, but you shall never get inside of it." Wolfe replied: "I will have Quebec if I stay here till the end of November."



WOLFE RECITING GRAY'S ELEGY ON THE WAY TO BATTLE.

Finally Wolfe discovered a narrow path by which he thought he might scale the Heights of Abraham. This path led from what is now known as Wolfe's Cove, a mile or two up the river from

the city of Quebec. During the night for two full hours the procession of boats carrying the soldiers floated silently down the St. Lawrence to this little cove.

General Wolfe was in one of the foremost boats. John Robison, afterward professor in the University of Edinburgh, who sat in the same boat, used afterward to tell how Wolfe, as they floated along, repeated "Gray's Elegy in a Country Churchyard." Among the verses was one which so soon illustrated his own fate:

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth, e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour:
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

Robison said that, after Wolfe had recited this stanza in a low voice and quiet manner, he remarked: "Gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec." Everybody was silent in the boat when he made this statement. No one ventured to say that the hero is greater than the poet.

His men landed rapidly and pushed up the narrow path to the summit. At the top the sentry challenged them. He was overpowered, and soon the first detachment was on the heights called the "Plains of Abraham." These heights were so named because a pilot whose name was Abraham Martin had owned this piece of ground in the early times of the colony. This was in the early dawn, but the real battle did not take place until after ten o'clock.

Montcalm, who commanded the French forces, was greatly surprised to find that the English had performed the "impossible feat" and had really gained the Heights. He attacked Wolfe with gallant energy. In the sharp battle which followed both commanders were wounded. Wolfe led the charge and was shot in the wrist. He wrapped his handkerchief about it and kept on. Another shot lodged in his breast and he sank to the ground. A moment after, some one exclaimed: "They run! See how they run!"

"Who run?" inquired Wolfe.

"The enemy, sir, they give way everywhere."

"Go," said the dying man, "tell Colonel Burton to march Webb's regiment down to Charles River, to cut off their retreat from the bridge." Then he turned over on his

side and murmured: "Now God be praised, I will die in peace."

Montcalm, fighting bravely and impetuously, received a shot through his body. Some one shrieked: "Oh, my God! my God! The marquis is killed!"

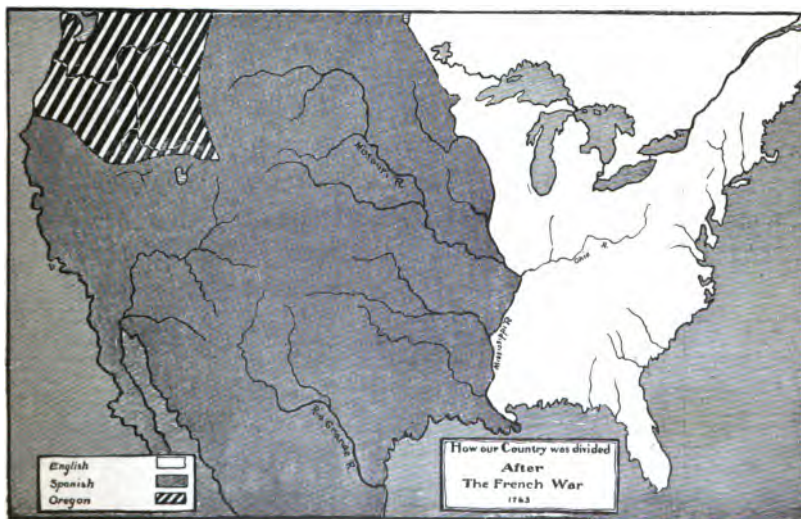
"It's nothing, it's nothing," cried Montcalm. "Don't be



THE DEATH OF WOLFE.

troubled for me, my good friends." The French were completely routed. Montcalm was carried within the walls of the city. He asked the surgeon how long he might live. The reply was: "Twelve hours, more or less."

"So much the better," replied the general. "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."



OUR COUNTRY BEFORE AND AFTER THE FRENCH WAR.

The next morning he breathed his last. Late in the evening he was buried under the floor of the chapel of the Ursuline Convent. A crowd of townspeople witnessed the burial. Tears and sobs burst forth. It seemed as if the last hopes of the colony were buried with him.

Indeed it was true that the funeral of Montcalm was the funeral of New France. After five days the city surrendered.

The treaty of peace followed (1763). England demanded everything and obtained whatever she asked for. She swept France entirely off this continent. She took for herself all Canada, the whole valley of the St. Lawrence, and that vast territory between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi.

She, however, allowed France to cede to Spain all that lay between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, which was afterward called "The Province of Louisiana." With the triumph of Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham the story of New France ended and the history of the United States began.

Count de Vergennes at this time was minister from France to Constantinople. When he heard of the treaty he said: "England has overshot the mark. She has gone too far; she will now tax her American colonies to help defray the expenses of this war. They no longer need her protection, and therefore will throw off all dependence upon the mother-country." What a true prophet he was!

State the position of France, Spain, and England on this continent before the French and Indian War; after the same war.

Give an account of General Wolfe. Describe the trip down the river; the ascent to the plains; the battle. Tell the story of the death of Wolfe; of the death of Montcalm.

In looking at the map, remember where the English sailor Cabot made his voyage, the Spaniard de Soto traveled, and the Frenchmen Champlain and La Salle explored; do you see any reasons for the divisions of the map? Why did the English fail so often to "gain an approach" to Quebec? Do you think that the hero may be greater than the poet? Each of the generals was glad to die; why?



The "Old South," where Adams urged the people of Boston to resist the British, still stands, almost as on the day it heard his eloquence. Saved from sale by those who loved it for its memories, it is used as a historical museum and for patriotic meetings.

Samuel Adams



In the busiest part of Boston stands old Faneuil Hall, the "Cradle of Liberty." The lower floor is used for markets, and the great hall, with walls covered with portraits of famous patriots, is still, as in the Revolution, the meeting-place of the people.

CHAPTER XVI

Samuel Adams

1722-1803

AFTER the great treaty of 1763, by which France divided between England and Spain her possessions in North America, the English colonies began a new life.

Before this time the French on the north and west were continually troubling the English settlements, and the Spaniards on the south were frequently in conflict with them. Now Canada and Florida were under English government, and the thirteen colonies had only the ever-present Indians to fear.

Another change had come at the same time. These thirteen colonies had been small and weak; they had been able only with difficulty to keep themselves alive; they could not always protect themselves without help from England. But now they had outgrown their weakness; their population and wealth had greatly increased; they had learned in the last

French war that they could fight well, if necessary; they no longer felt dependent upon help from England.

On the other hand, England saw that the colonies were stronger, and thought that they ought now to make return for her protection to them. The king and the English Parliament believed that the French war had benefited the colonies and that they ought to help pay the great expenses that had come from it. Therefore Parliament decided to tax the colonists.

But the colonists considered that this was not right, because they were subject only to the king and not to Parliament. They had no voice in Parliament and did not wish to have. They declared, as the English people had declared hundreds of years earlier, that no one had the right to tax them; that it was just only for them to tax themselves.

Thus a struggle began between the mother-country, England, and the colonies, over the question of taxation. This contest lasted for ten years, and was ended by a war which we call the War of the American Revolution. What England did and what the colonies did year by year make an exceedingly interesting story, but we can tell here only a few of the most important facts.

The struggle began when Parliament passed the Stamp Act.

This Stamp Act required the colonists to buy stamps from English officers to place upon all legal papers. No newspapers, almanacs, marriage certificates, law documents, or other important papers could be printed or written unless they were stamped by the proper officers. As these stamps must be paid for, this act was a form of taxation. As soon as the news of its passage reached America, great excitement arose

from New Hampshire to Georgia. Speeches were made against it in colony after colony.

The two leading colonies were Virginia and Massachusetts. Virginia spoke first, being led on by the wonderful oratory of Patrick Henry. This brilliant young lawyer moved in the Virginia House of Burgesses that each colony had the right to tax itself. In his famous speech he declared that the English king, George III., was acting like a tyrant and that he must expect the fate that comes to tyrants.

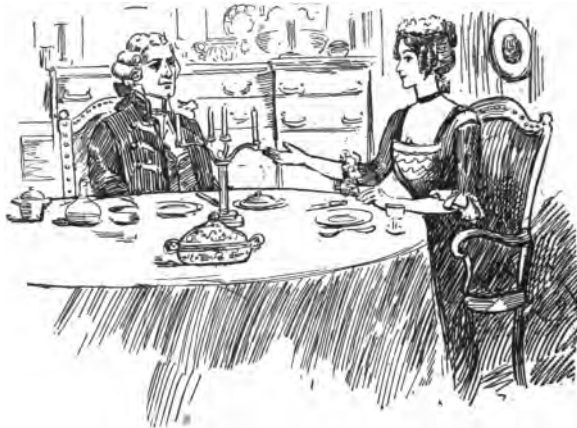
Massachusetts quickly followed by inviting the other colonies to send delegates to a Congress to be held in New York City, to consider what the colonists should do. The Stamp Act Congress met and made appeals to the king that their rights be not interfered with. A few months later Parliament repealed the Stamp Act, the news of which caused great rejoicing in America.

Parliament did not, however, yield its right to tax the colonies, and a year later laid a duty upon many articles which might be imported by America. Again the colonists were stirred with anger and at once began to resist. They formed associations which agreed to import none of those articles upon which the duty was laid.

One of these articles was tea, and for years almost no tea was seen upon the tables of the patriotic colonists. As a result, the money obtained by this taxation was very little indeed, not sufficient to pay the salaries of the officers who collected it.

Such a conflict as had here arisen always brings some great man forward to be a leader. In Massachusetts this leader was Samuel Adams. His father had always been an earnest patriot, and had filled his son with enthusiasm for the future of Massachusetts and her sister colonies.

The year that the Stamp Act was passed, Samuel Adams was chosen one of Boston's four representatives to the Massachusetts Legislature or General Court. He was soon elected clerk, and for ten years he was the head and front, the leader in every movement in the colony to resist the English Parliament and its claim of the right to tax the colonies. He took the lead in Boston in the formation of the "Non-Import-



A PATRIOT COLONIAL DAME TELLS HER GUEST, "WE HAVE NO TEA ON OUR TABLE."

tation Associations," and daily and hourly guided everything with his own hand.

Little by little the dispute grew into a quarrel, and the quarrel became more and more violent. Little by little the anger of the English authorities and of the colonists increased until they seemed to have nothing in common.

It needed but a trifle to bring the two parties to blows, and that came in 1773. King George III. directed that cargoes of tea should be sent to America and the duty collected upon it. At once fierce opposition was shown throughout the col-

onies. The first vessel arrived in Philadelphia and was immediately sent back. Another sailed into Charleston harbor, where the tea was landed, but it was stored in damp cellars and rotted. A third was compelled to return to England as soon as it reached New York.

The great struggle, however, came in Boston. Here the governor was loyal to England, and was determined that the tea should be landed. Besides, as there had been trouble in Boston before, English soldiers were stationed in the town and English war-vessels in the harbor.

When the ships arrived a town-meeting was held in Faneuil Hall to determine what should be done. Samuel Adams took the lead at once, and, in the presence of thousands, moved that: "This body is absolutely determined that the tea now arrived shall be returned to the place from whence it came." This was agreed to without a single vote "No," and the owner was ordered not to land any of the tea.

The governor, however, refused to permit the return of the vessels. Another town-meeting filled the Old South Meeting-House and the streets adjoining. The people again voted that the tea must be sent back, and the owner went to the governor for permission. While he was gone the people waited in anxious expectation; darkness arrived and the church was lighted only by a few candles, but the crowd still lingered.

Finally the owner of the tea returned and reported that the governor still refused. Thereupon Samuel Adams arose, and said in a quiet but clear voice: "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country."

This was doubtless a signal, for immediately a war-whoop was heard, and forty or fifty men, dressed as Mohawk Indians, rushed by the doors. The crowd followed them to the

wharves and eagerly watched them as they boarded the vessels and threw three hundred chests of tea into the sea.

Nothing else was done; but the tea was not landed nor was a duty paid. This action at Boston—the “Tea Party,” as it was called—seemed worse than that of any of the other

colonial towns, and Parliament immediately began to punish the rebellious citizens of the capital of Massachusetts Bay.

Now the struggle is ready to break out into open fighting. Now an English general is made governor of Massachusetts, and to him is given great power over the colony. He seeks to deprive the colonists of all means of carrying on war, if they should be driven to it.



THE BOSTON TEA PARTY.

He sends portions of his army out in various directions to capture cannon and ammunition wherever he

hears that any is stored. He tries to seize cannon at Salem, and his soldiers can scarcely be prevented from firing upon the people. He attempts to destroy the ammunition stored at Concord and causes the first bloodshed in the Revolution, as we shall see in another chapter.

Meanwhile Samuel Adams, John Hancock, and other Massachusetts patriots are actively at work. Governor Gage

calls the General Court to meet at Salem. The representatives come together and are ready to begin their session, but their clerk, Samuel Adams, is not present. Has he been captured by Governor Gage's soldiers? No! for here he comes. As he enters the hall he sees a group of Tories, or friends of the king, gathered about the clerk's desk, and one of them quietly sitting in the clerk's chair.

"Mr. Speaker," says the clear voice of Adams, "where is the place for your clerk?" The speaker points to the place.

"Sir," continues Adams, "my company will not be pleasant to the gentlemen who occupy it. I trust they will remove to another part of the house."

Thus, fearless and determined, Samuel Adams won his way in spite of all opposition. He saw that the colonies must work together, and he decided that Massachusetts ought to call a Congress of all the colonies. But he knew that Governor Gage would dismiss the General Court if he should suspect what was being planned.

So Adams and his friends worked quietly, and when all was ready Adams suddenly locked the door and directed the doorkeeper to allow no one to enter or leave. He then proposed that a Continental Congress should meet at Philadelphia and that five men be chosen to represent Massachusetts in that Congress.

The Tories attempted to get out of the hall, but Adams put the key in his pocket. One of them did escape, however, and carried the news to Gage, who immediately sent a message to the Court, ordering it to disband. His dismissing of the Court came too late, however, for not until the delegates had been chosen was the messenger admitted, notwithstanding his loud pounding upon the door. The deed was

done. Now Samuel Adams must carry on his work at Philadelphia as well as at home.

The first Continental Congress met in September (1774), and a second Congress was called for the next May (1775). This met just after the first blood had been shed at Lexington and Concord, and a war had evidently begun. Congress appointed Colonel Washington to be "General and Com-



A NEW ENGLAND COLONIAL HOUSE.

mander-in-Chief of the Army of the United Colonies," and also took such other steps as it found necessary to govern the country while struggling against English oppression.

All this time very few persons had any desire to separate from England and become independent. Nearly all the colonists wished merely that the mother-country would grant them their rights.

Samuel Adams had been for a long time, however, certain that the struggle must result in independence, but he saw that the people were not yet ready for such a step. The war must continue and the hostility to England must increase, before that end could be reached.

The idea that the colonists should declare themselves free and independent was first publicly proposed by Thomas Paine. He published a pamphlet, called "Common Sense,"

in which he said that independence must come some time, and easier now than later.

Soon the colonies began themselves to speak for independence. North Carolina directed its delegates in Congress to agree with other delegates in declaring independence. Rhode Island voted that it was no longer subject to the king, practically declaring itself independent. South Carolina took the next step, followed by Virginia and Connecticut.

Richard Henry Lee, a delegate from Virginia, moved in Congress that "These United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States."

On July 2, 1776, this motion was adopted; and from that day the United States has been a free and independent nation. A committee of five was appointed to draw up a Declaration of Independence, in which the whole world should be told the reasons for the separation from England.

Two days later the Declaration of Independence, written by Thomas Jefferson, was adopted, and the first **Fourth of July** had come. Four days later the Declaration was publicly read to the citizens of Philadelphia, and the great bell on the Pennsylvania State House was rung. On this bell was the motto, "Proclaim liberty throughout the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof."

A few days afterward the delegates in Congress signed their names to the Declaration, the name of the President, John Hancock, heading the list, written in a bold hand, which, as he said, George III. could easily read.

Samuel Adams continued to be the servant of the people of his loved colony and State, being, in turn, representative to the General Court, State senator, and governor. For twelve years he had worked early and late, using all his energies and employing all his powers to lead the thirteen colonies to for-

get their differences, unite as one people, and manage their affairs for themselves.

For this purpose the United Colonies must be independent, and now they had so declared themselves.

Samuel Adams' great work was now done. He left it to other leaders, like Washington and Greene, to bring the war to an end and compel England to acknowledge that the United States were free and independent.

Give an account of the general causes of the American Revolution. Tell the story of the Stamp Act and its repeal; of the tea tax and the "Tea Party."

Give an account of Samuel Adams during his earlier actions: in the Old South Church; in the Salem court-room; as he put the key in his pocket.

State what Congress did.

Tell how the idea of independence grew in the colonies.

Describe the different steps taken by Congress in July, 1776.

How did Wolfe aid in preparing the way for the United States? Could the colonies have helped pay the debt without being taxed by Parliament? What is a tax? Is there a Stamp tax to-day? What is a "Non-Importation Association"? Was Boston's destruction of the tea a worse act than those of the other towns? Can you think of any reason why Governor Gage called the General Court to meet at Salem rather than at Boston? Was the signing of the Declaration of Independence in any way a dangerous act?



PAUL REVERE



CHAPTER XVII

Paul Revere

1735-1818

PAUL REVERE, from his romantic story, is one of the most famous of the Revolutionists. His father was a goldsmith. Paul was trained in that business, and became expert in drawing and designing. When the Massachusetts State House was built on Beacon Hill in Boston, he was grand master of the Masonic Fraternity and laid the corner-stone. He was very skilful in working in copper and brass, and cast many church-bells and bronze cannon.

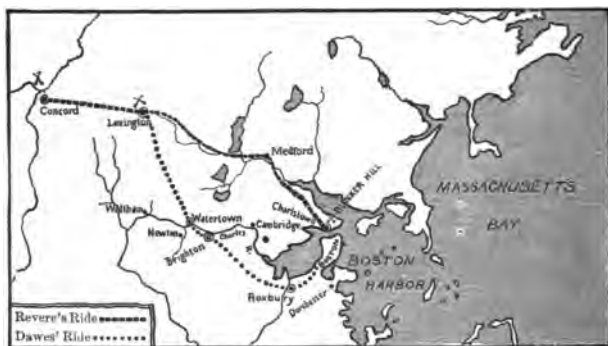
Revere was a very active patriot during the years preceding the Revolution. Together with William Dawes, he was a leader in a secret society of about thirty young men, who watched the movements of the British soldiers and observed the plans of the Tories. These young men took turns in patrolling the streets, and whatever they discovered they reported to John Hancock, Samuel Adams, and other patriots.

During this time Paul Revere went to Philadelphia to learn how to make gunpowder, and on his return he built a powder-mill and put it in successful operation. When the Boston "Tea Party" came off, which destroyed so great an

amount of tea in Boston harbor, Revere was one of the prime movers.

As we have seen in the story of Adams, General Gage determined to send an armed force to Concord to capture military stores secreted there. He also desired to arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock, and to send them to England to be tried for treason.

These men were in Lexington preparing to go to Philadelphia to join the second Continental Congress. Gage was



HOW REVERE AND DAWES RODE THE NIGHT BEFORE LEXINGTON AND CONCORD.

all ready to send the troops from Boston to Lexington and Concord, when the patriot General Warren was told that they were about to start. This was on the night of the 18th of April, 1775. Warren at once decided to send William Dawes to Lexington by way of Roxbury, Brighton, and Watertown, and Paul Revere by way of Charlestown and Medford.

It was a wise precaution on the part of General Warren to send men to arouse the people and notify Adams and Hancock. Warren was shrewd and sagacious. He sent two men instead of one, so that if the British should capture one of

them, the other might perhaps get through. Then, again, Dawes would notify the people through what is now called Brookline, Brighton, and Watertown, while Revere waked those along the road through Charlestown and Medford.

Now think of these two men, earnest in purpose and full of interest in the cause they served, galloping their horses along the country roads, stopping at the house of every minute-man, rapping upon the door, and calling upon him to arise, take his musket, powder-horn, and shot-bag, and hasten to Lexington to oppose and dispute the passage of the British soldiers through the country.

The dogs barked, the children were frightened, and a great commotion was stirred up everywhere. On they went, and at each farmhouse you might see the tin lantern hastily lighted, the minute-man buckle on his belt and cartridge-box, take down his musket from the two wooden pins over the door, kiss his wife good-by, saddle and bridle his horse almost as quickly as the story can be told, and ride post haste toward Lexington Green.

In the early hours of April 19th both the young men reached Lexington and gave notice to Adams and Hancock. There they were joined by Samuel Prescott, "a high son of liberty," and the three rode onward from Lexington toward Concord, arousing the people as heretofore. On their way, in the town of Lincoln, they met a party of British officers. Prescott at once put spurs to his horse, leaped over a stone wall, and galloped onward for Concord. Revere and Dawes were taken prisoners and were marched back to Lexington, where they were released.

And now, at about two o'clock in the morning, the bell of the old meeting-house at Lexington rang out in sharp and rapid peals. Its strokes were quick and heavy. It seemed to

say: "Rouse-ye, rouse-ye; wake-up, wake-up; free-dom, free-dom; liber-ty, liber-ty; all-awake, all-awake." This midnight peal soon brought together the people of the village, old and young, with their firelocks and ammunition, ready to defend their town and dispute the advance of the British.

Messages were sent everywhere to all the cross-roads, and the minute-men of the neighborhood were quickly notified. What a hurrying and scurrying was there! What intense anxiety! Men hastily leaving their homes unprotected, their wives weeping, the children scared out of sleep by the cries; the men for the first time in their lives taking arms, without guides, counsellors, or leaders, hurrying together with one common impulse to fight their common foe, the insolent British invaders!

At early dawn the British forces, eight hundred strong, drew up and formed a line of battle at the village of Lexington. They were led by Major Pitcairn, who, finding the minute-men ready to oppose his march, rode out in front of his troops and cried: "Disperse, ye villains! Ye rebels, disperse! Lay down your arms! Lay down your arms and disperse!" But the patriots stood motionless—"too few to resist, too brave to fly."

Pitcairn then drew his sword, discharged his pistol, and with a loud voice cried out, "Fire!" The patriots plainly saw that they could not oppose the progress of Pitcairn's army; so they withdrew and left them to go on to Concord.

Among the most alert that morning was William Emerson, the minister of Concord. He came out gun in hand, his powder-horn and pouch of balls slung over his shoulder. By his sermons and his prayers his flock had learned to hold a defence of their liberties as a part of their covenant with God;

his presence with arms strengthened their sense of duty, though they would not allow him to fight.

The Americans made a stand at Concord Bridge. There the British fired upon them, and Major Buttrick, of Concord,



THE FIGHT AT CONCORD.

leaped up and cried out: "Fire! Fellow-soldiers, for God's sake, fire!"

"By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood
And fired the shot heard round the world."

The Revolutionary War had begun. All the way back to Boston the redcoats marched in great haste, harassed by the patriots who fired upon them from behind walls and rocks and trees. The loss of the British during this retreat



A MINUTE-MAN HARASSING THE BRITISH.

was very great. They had marched out of Boston, insolent as usual, to the tune of "Yankee Doodle." They returned utterly exhausted, leaving in killed, wounded, and missing nearly three hundred men.

The Continental Congress met and vigorously commenced to prepare for war. It voted an army, and on the 15th of June, 1775, George Washington was unanimously elected commander-in-chief.

Meantime everything in and about Boston displayed intense activity. The British army held the city and the patriot army was scattered around it.

The first great battle was fought at Bunker Hill on the

17th of June. During the previous night the hill had been fortified by the patriots, and early in the morning the British opened fire from the deck of a vessel in the channel. Just after midday three thousand British soldiers landed at the foot of the hill and marched straight up toward the American works. They were met by a terrific discharge of musketry and retreated in great disorder.

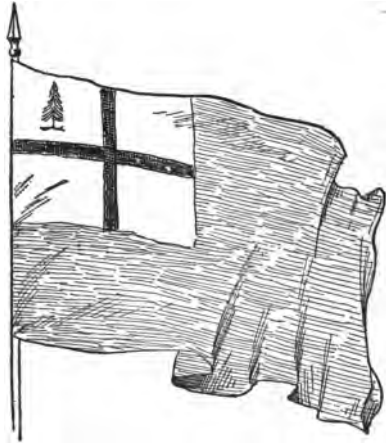
The officers rallied the troops and they advanced the second time up the hill. The patriots reserved their fire till the British were within five or six rods, and then the slaughter was fearful. A second time they retreated, but British honor was at stake—the fort must be carried. Charlestown had been set on fire and nearly five hundred

buildings were burned. Moreover, the Americans had used up their powder and ball. At the third British charge they were therefore obliged to retreat.

They withdrew in good order across the neck to the mainland, but during the retreat General Warren was shot in the head and died instantly. This was a deep loss to the American cause. The battle was over, and the British held the field.

An American recently, in Quebec, was shown an old cannon. The Canadian said:

“We took this cannon from you at Bunker Hill.”



Flag used by the New England troops
at the battle of Bunker Hill

"Well," said the American, "you have the cannon, but we have the hill."

This battle showed General Gage that the Americans were not to be easily subdued. Franklin wrote to his English friends: "The Americans will fight; England has lost her colonies forever."

Give an account of Revere's early life.

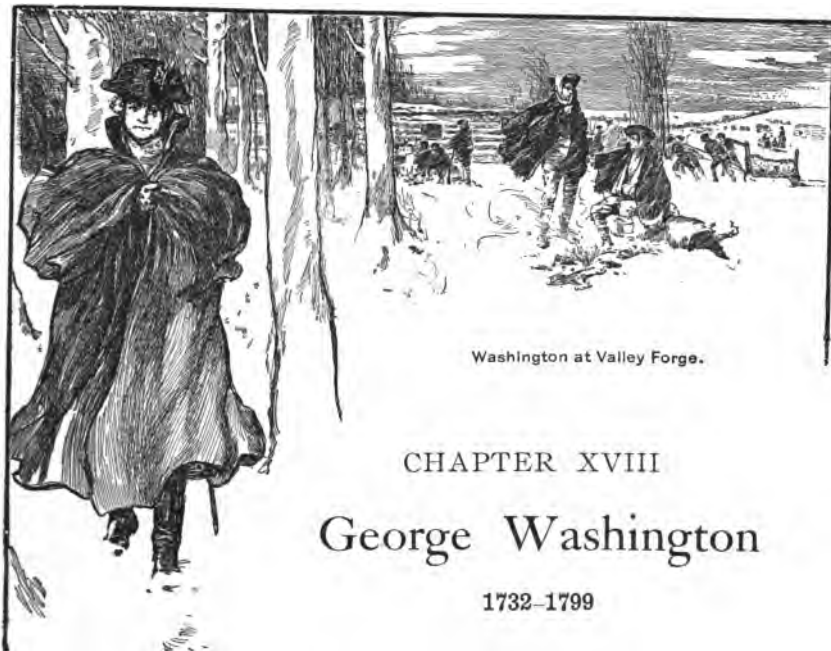
Tell the story of the night of April 18th; of the battle of Lexington; of the battle at Concord.

Describe the battle of Bunker Hill.

Why did Revere want to know how to make gunpowder? Why did Gage desire the arrest of Adams and Hancock? Where do you understand that General Warren was on the night of the 18th of April? Why did Pitcairn call the men at Lexington "rebels"? What did the minute men do after the battle at Concord? Who were the men in the "patriot army" at the battle of Bunker Hill? Who won the battle of Bunker Hill? Did the battle aid the Americans in any way?



A Revolutionary Musket.



Washington at Valley Forge.

CHAPTER XVIII

George Washington

1732-1799

WE have already been made acquainted with Samuel Adams and Paul Revere, two Boston boys. We have also heard about Patrick Henry, a native of Virginia. Now we wish to learn about the most distinguished man that Virginia ever produced—George Washington.

George Washington was born February 22d, 1732. His birthplace was not far from the lower Potomac River, at a place called Pope's Creek, in Westmoreland County. His father was Augustine Washington, and his mother was Mary Ball. He was the oldest child of his mother, and his father died when he was eleven years of age. Few sons ever had a more lovely and more devoted mother, and it is certainly true that few mothers ever had a more dutiful and affectionate son.

In those early days the country sections of Virginia had few inhabitants. Well-to-do people had large plantations and but few neighbors. Traveling was mostly done on horseback. Negro slaves were numerous. Schools were few in that thinly settled region, but young Washington had the best advantages that the times afforded. He learned to read well, to write well, to "cipher" well, and he learned land-surveying.

In his boyhood he was fond of mathematical studies and athletic sports. He had great strength and endurance. Tall, well formed, hardy, he could surpass all other boys in leaping, jumping, wrestling, and running. In his early years he formed his schoolmates into a military company and drilled them in the tactics. In his boyhood he was a born leader of boys; later, in his manhood he was equally a leader of men. He was always methodical in his habits, careful, exact, and thorough in all he did. Many interesting stories are told of Washington's boyhood. Some of them, however, are not true. It is a pity that even good stories, which are not true, should ever be told, especially of a great man.

But we must not stop for the interesting incidents of the boyhood and youth of Washington. You must find these stories in other books, and you will all enjoy reading them. When he was sixteen years old, Washington was engaged by Lord Fairfax to survey his wide tracts of wild land. These lands ran across the Blue Ridge and through the Shenandoah Valley. It was a severe task for a young man of his years to undertake. Moreover, it was full of danger. But it was done in such a manner as to give entire satisfaction to his friends and establish his reputation as a surveyor.

At nineteen he was appointed adjutant-general in the Virginia army. When he was twenty-one he was sent by the

governor of Virginia as commissioner to confer with the officer commanding the French forces on Lake Erie. This was a wonderful journey, full of adventures, but accomplished in safety. He made his report to the governor and his journal was published.

When only twenty-one Washington was promoted to be colonel and was made second in command of the Virginia forces. Then came the famous expedition of General Braddock and his disastrous defeat at the battle of the Monongahela. Braddock was killed and the troops returned to Virginia in disorder. At the age of twenty-three Washington was placed in full command of the entire force of the Virginia militia; this was twenty years before the battle of Bunker Hill.



MOUNT VERNON IN WASHINGTON'S TIME.

But we must hasten to consider Washington's part in that war which made the United States one of the nations of the earth. Washington was a member of both Continental Congresses that assembled at Philadelphia, and on the 15th day of June, 1775, at the earnest request of John Adams, of Massachusetts, he was unanimously elected commander-in-chief of all the forces for the defence of liberty.

The battle of Bunker Hill had been fought when, on July 3d, Washington took command of the army, drawing his sword under an ancient elm which is still standing in Cambridge, Massachusetts. For nearly nine months the British army under General Gage and Lord Howe was penned up in

Boston, while all communication between the town and the surrounding country was cut off.

In March, 1776, Washington fortified Dorchester Heights by night. The British saw themselves so surrounded and the city so threatened that Gage and his forces left the city and

sailed away to Halifax. The Continental troops marched in, to the great relief of the citizens of the town. On the next Fourth of July Congress passed the immortal Declaration of Independence.

The British army, having been driven out of Boston, took possession of New York City. They intended to obtain control of the Hudson River and thus to separate New England from the rest of the



THE ELM AT CAMBRIDGE, WHERE WASHINGTON TOOK
COMMAND OF THE PATRIOT ARMY.

country. Washington so managed as to prevent the British from carrying out these plans. His army, however, was now quite small, numbering only six or eight thousand men, and the outlook was very discouraging.

Washington was obliged to retreat across New Jersey into Pennsylvania. Then by a skilful movement he recrossed the Delaware River and gained the great victories of Tren-

ton and Princeton, finally driving General Howe back to the vicinity of New York. Howe left New York (in 1777) and transported his army south to the Chesapeake Bay. Landing there, he started on the march toward Philadelphia, defeated the Americans, pushed on, and entered Philadelphia unmolested. Washington with his army took up a favorable position on the Schuylkill River.

While all these movements were going on through New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, let us see what happened farther east. In New Jersey our Gen. Charles Lee had been captured by the British. The British General Prescott was in command of the forces at Newport, and Colonel William Barton, of the Rhode Island militia, laid a bold plan for his capture.

With a picked company of forty brave men, Colonel Barton rowed across Narragansett Bay one dark night, almost directly under the guns of the British vessels, and tied his boats to the bushes upon the shore. Then they silently stole across the fields and surrounded the house where Prescott was sleeping, disarmed the sentinels, burst open the doors, and took General Prescott and one of his aides out of their beds, grasping their clothing and carrying it with them without waiting for the prisoners to dress. They hurried them down to the water's edge, into the boats, and succeeded in rowing past the British guard-ship before the alarm had been given.

During their hurried march across the fields with the prisoners not a word had been spoken, but when they were once seated in the boat General Prescott quietly remarked to Colonel Barton:

"You have made a bold push to-night, colonel."

"We have done what we could, general," was the reply.

Prescott was exchanged for General Lee, and Colonel Barton, for his bold and successful enterprise, received a sword from the Continental Congress.

The first campaign of the British had been to cut the country in two by holding New York and the Hudson River. They now made their second great plan, which was to send an army by way of Canada and Lake Champlain down the Hudson and so accomplish what they had failed to do before. This plan led to Burgoyne's campaign (in 1777), during which occurred several battles, and which resulted in the surrender of Burgoyne and his army.

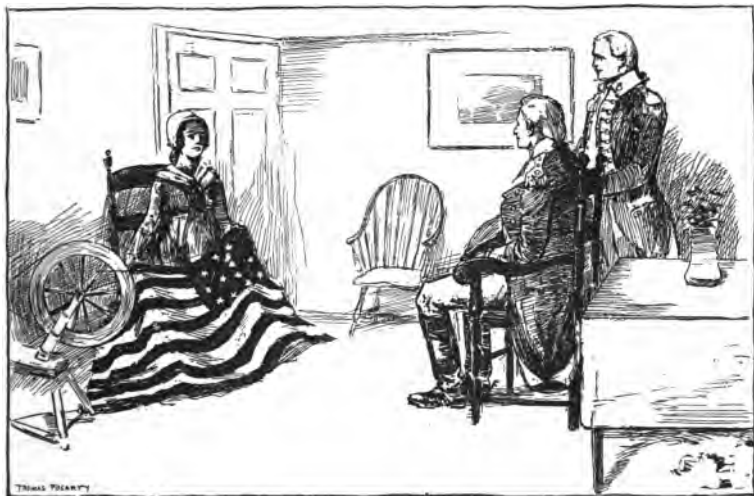
Meantime Congress had adopted the "Stars and Stripes" as a national banner. This flag had thirteen stripes, seven red and six white, and thirteen stars in a field of blue at the upper corner next to the staff. The first flag was made by Mrs. Betsey Ross, of Philadelphia, who lived near the foot of Arch Street. The house in which that first flag was made is still standing. This flag was patterned from a pencilled sketch drawn by General Washington himself. The new flag was used when Burgoyne's army was marched away as prisoners of war.

Soon after this, Franklin succeeded in making a treaty with France, by which the independence of the United States was acknowledged. This was the first acknowledgment of our independence by any European power, and the first treaty of commerce and friendship.

The winter of 1777-78 was a period of great depression to the American cause, and particularly in the American army. This army was encamped at Valley Forge, now a picturesque little village on the right bank of the Schuylkill. It was then a bleak and desolate place, where the patriots protected themselves behind breastworks which they had thrown up,

and lived in poor huts made of fence-rails and earth. One small room on the ground floor of a stone house, owned and occupied by a plain farmer, a Quaker, named Isaac Potts, served both for headquarters and lodgings for General Washington, the commander-in-chief.

The soldiers suffered much; clothing was scarce and of



WASHINGTON'S FIRST SIGHT OF THE STARS AND STRIPES.

poor quality. Their provisions were scant, and some of them were without shoes, so that frequently the soldiers could be tracked by the blood from their naked feet which crimsoned the white snow. There were three thousand men unfit for duty, as Washington said, "because they are barefoot and otherwise naked." And he added that "for seven days past they had little else than famine in the camp."

Then again, Washington was abused and slandered in a

way unwarranted and wicked. It is related that one day Friend Potts, the Quaker, when on his way up the creek, heard the voice of prayer. Following the direction of the sound, he soon discovered Washington upon his knees within the great forest of tall trees, at a place retired and hidden from view. His cheeks were wet with tears as he poured out his soul to God. The good farmer quietly withdrew without being discovered, and when he arrived at his house he said to his wife, with much emotion:

"Hannah, Hannah, George Washington will succeed! I tell thee George Washington will succeed! The Americans will secure their independence!"

"What makes thee think so, Isaac?" inquired his wife.

"I have heard him pray in the forest to-day, Hannah, and the Lord will surely hear his prayer. He will, Hannah, thee may rest assured He will."

But Congress adopts measures of relief. General Clinton succeeds General Howe, evacuates Philadelphia, and moves across New Jersey.

Then occurs the battle at Monmouth Court-house, where Washington himself saves the day and gains a notable victory. The British army now retreated to New York, and Washington took up his position at White Plains. This was the last important conflict fought in the Northern States.

The next year was another gloomy period, but through the whole war, whether in victory or defeat, even in the midst of the greatest discouragements, perplexities, and difficulties, Washington always preserved that good judgment, self-control, and confidence in the right which were such marked features of his character and which eventually brought to him the greatest and most permanent success.

A further account of the progress of the war will be found

in the next chapter. We must not, however, part with Washington just here. We shall see, hereafter, that the war was continued vigorously and under serious discouragements, until finally the British army under Lord Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown to the combined land and sea forces of the United States and France. Practically this ended the war, and later our independence was granted by Great Britain.

General Washington now retired to private life, but a new constitution for the United States was adopted in 1787, and under it Washington was unanimously elected President. He held that high office eight years, from 1789 to 1797, and refused a third election. He died December 14th, 1799.

His death caused the most sincere mourning, not only all over the United States, but in every country of the civilized world. He had conquered Great Britain, the foremost power of the world on the battlefield. He presided over the convention which framed our national constitution, and he was chief magistrate of the young republic for eight years.

An anecdote is told to the effect that, after the treaty of



WASHINGTON TURNING THE BATTLE AT MONMOUTH.

peace with Great Britain had been concluded, a grand dinner was given in Paris in honor of the success of the commissioners in arranging terms of peace.

At this dinner the English ambassador offered a toast: "King George III.: like the glorious sun at midday, he illu-



WASHINGTON AT TRENTON.
(From the painting by John Faed.)

mines the world." Then the French minister offered as his toast: "Louis XVI.: like the full moon riding in splendor, he dissipates the shades of night." It was now Franklin's turn, and all eyes were fixed upon him. The philosopher slowly arose and called on the company to join him in a toast as follows: "George Washington: like Joshua of old, he commanded the sun and the moon to stand still, and they obeyed him."

Washington displayed the highest qualities as a leader of men, as a military chieftain, and as a statesman. He shrank from no duty, his patience and perseverance overcame every obstacle, his moderation disarmed all opposition; his courage, physical, mental, and moral, was of that kind which knew no fear whatever. In the case of obstacles which would discourage other men, he knew how to conquer by waiting until victory should come.

He stood first among men, not only in the eyes of his countrymen, but also in the opinion of the world. As his fame was bounded by no country, so it will be limited to no age.

Give an account of Washington as a boy; as a young man.

Describe the campaign about Boston; around New York City; in New Jersey; near Philadelphia.

Tell the story of the capture of Prescott.

Describe Burgoyne's campaign; also the last campaign in the North.

Why was the surveying of Lord Fairfax's lands a "severe task"? Why was it "full of danger"? Who were the "Continental troops"? Why did their entrance into Boston "relieve" its citizens? How has the United States flag been changed since it was first made? Why was Friend Potts so certain of Washington's final success?



GENERAL GREENE



CHAPTER XIX

Nathaniel Greene

1742-1786

GENERAL GREENE was a Rhode Islander. His father was a Quaker preacher. He had a strong and vigorous constitution, and in his boyhood was foremost in every rural sport and game. He had a marked passion for books, but his only schooling was at his father's house under the direction of a private tutor for the half-dozen boys in the family.

It is said that "one of the happiest days of his life was that which first saw him the owner of a Euclid."

On one occasion when he visited Providence and had finished the business for which he had come, he hastened to a bookstore, stepped up to the counter, and said: "I want to buy a book."

"What book?" asked the bookseller. To this young Greene was unable to reply, and he stood silent and blushing, not knowing what to say. Dr. Stiles, a clergyman from Newport, afterward the president of Yale College, was present and saw the boy's perplexity.

"So, my boy," said he, "you want to buy a book and don't know what book you want?" "I guess so," said Greene. "Well," said the clergyman, "is it a story book or a school

book that you want?" "I want a book," said Greene, "that will make me know more." "Well," said the clergyman, "there are many such books, for I suppose there are a good many things which you do not know yet." "I do not know much of anything," said the boy, "but I want to know more."

So the minister gave him good advice as to what were the best books to read and what to study, and became one of his lifelong friends. Through the advice of Dr. Stiles he began to study Watt's "Logic," and "Locke on the Understanding."

Greene helped to organize a military company called the Kentish Guards, and, arms being scarce, he went to Boston to purchase a musket (1774). While in Boston he witnessed the drilling of the British troops, and was greatly impressed with the imposing appearance of the regulars at their morning and evening parades.

Little did the British officers, in the pride of their gallant array, dream who was looking upon them from under the broad-brimmed hat of the Quaker, or how fatally for them the lessons would be applied.

Hiding his musket under the straw in the wagon, he started for Rhode Island. He took with him a British deserter whom he had engaged as drill-master for the Kentish Guards.



"I WANT A BOOK THAT WILL MAKE ME KNOW MORE."

Rhode Island voted to raise an army of sixteen hundred men, and appointed Greene to command them, with the rank of major-general. See this young man, at the age of thirty-three, marching his regiment to join the Continental army at Cambridge. He is appointed a brigadier-general in the Continental service, and enters upon those military duties which are to engage his whole attention till the close of the war.

He was one of the earliest to recommend a Declaration of Independence. More than a year before the Declaration was passed, he wrote to a member of Congress as follows:

“Permit me to recommend, from the sincerity of a heart at all times ready to bleed for my country’s cause, a Declaration of Independence; and call upon the world and the great God who governs it, to witness the necessity, propriety, and rectitude thereof.”

He rapidly won the confidence and esteem of Washington, and through the whole war was regarded as the second general in the army, next in command to Washington. He marched his brigade from Boston to New York, and took a prominent part in the skirmishes and battles around that city.

He was with Washington through the long winter at Valley Forge. From there he wrote to a friend: “I have no hopes of coming home this winter; the general will not grant me permission. Mrs. Greene is coming to camp; we are all going into log huts—a sweet life after a most fatiguing campaign.” After this, we find him at the battle of Monmouth, where his services were of the highest order.

The British General Clinton, determined to transfer the war to the South, sent a force against Savannah, and took the city. The British, emboldened by their success, captured

Charleston after a long siege, and General Lincoln was obliged to surrender his army. Then General Gates was placed in command in the South, and lost the battle of Camden. This battle clearly showed that Gates was not the man for the place.

But we must not forget that notable battle of Kings Mountain. Colonel Tarleton, unlike most officers of the British army, was notorious for his extreme barbarity and inhuman butchery of prisoners. Made almost desperate by Tarleton's cruelty, an impromptu band of volunteers, under the command of Colonels Shelby and Sevier, marched against the British under Major Ferguson at Kings Mountain, and after the most severe fighting gained a complete victory.



Finally General Greene was appointed to succeed Gates in command of the Southern army. Washington had intended that Greene should have the command before, but Congress had given the position to Gates. Greene's campaign was carried on under many disadvantages, but was managed with great skill. The Americans were entirely victorious at the battle of Cowpens. They lost but twelve men killed and sixty wounded, while the British lost one hundred and twenty-nine killed and wounded and six hundred prisoners. The

Americans captured one hundred horses with many wagon-loads of stores.

Tarleton barely escaped with his life. He was wounded by a blow from the sword of Col. William A. Washington. Some time afterward, in a company of Southern ladies, Colo-



COLONEL TARLETON'S REBUFF.

nel Tarleton said: "I have been told that Colonel Washington is very illiterate and can scarcely write his name." "But, colonel," replied one of the ladies, "he can at least *make his mark!*" Tarleton said: "I would very much like to see Colonel Washington." The lady instantly replied: "You might have had that opportunity and pleasure, colonel, if you had looked behind you at the Battle of Cowpens."

Greene now increased his army by new recruits. Then came the battles of Guilford Courthouse and Hobkirk Hill. Cornwallis was in command of the British army in the South, and he marched northward into Virginia, hoping to draw Greene after him; but on the contrary Greene moved South and began to win back the Southern States. Sumter and Marion captured Orangeburgh, Fort Mott, Granby, Fort Cornwallis, Georgetown, and Augusta. In September, 1781, Greene fought the last battle of the war in the far South at Eutaw Springs. He had reconquered the entire South.

Now the armies are drawn together in Virginia. Corn-

wallis is there and Washington sends Lafayette thither. The French fleet under Count de Grasse sails up the Chesapeake Bay and the York River. About the first of September, Count de Saint Simon joins Lafayette with over three thousand troops. Washington rapidly moves his main army through New Jersey and on to Virginia. Cornwallis had fortified Yorktown. The combined American forces surround the town and his retreat by water is blocked by De Grasse. A hundred cannon are turned upon the British forts and dismount every one of their guns. The British General cannot break through the lines, he cannot retreat, he cannot stay where he is.

So Cornwallis surrendered to Washington, on the 19th of October, 1781, and the British fleet to De Grasse. This practically ended the war, although the treaty of peace was not made till more than a year afterward and the definitive treaty a year after that (1783). The news of the surrender of Cornwallis was received with great joy by the people all over the country. December 13th was observed as a day of national thanksgiving.

Give an account of Greene's boyhood; of his trip to Boston; of his joining the army; of his life at Valley Forge.

Describe the war in the South; the battle of Kings Mountain.

Tell the story of Greene's Southern campaign; of the siege of Yorktown; of the surrender and the treaty of peace.

What is a "Euclid"? How did Greene's trip to Boston aid him? What were the "regulars"? Was life at Valley Forge a "sweet life"? How long did the Revolutionary War last? What nations made the treaty of peace?



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN



CHAPTER XX

Benjamin Franklin

1706-1790

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN was one of the most famous men that America has ever produced. His life covers the greater part of the last century. He was born in Boston, at that time the largest town in all the English colonies, but having less than ten thousand people.

There were then ten colonies along the coast. Baltimore had not been settled, nor New Orleans. There were no railroads, and not even a stage-coach in the country. At that time there were three colleges and but one newspaper.

How different was America when Franklin died, an old man, eighty-four years of age. The Revolutionary War had been fought, the Constitution of the United States had been adopted, and Washington had become President. At the birth of Franklin the population of this country was probably less than half a million. At his death it was nearly ten times as great.

Franklin was a self-educated man. He went to school only two years, leaving it when he was ten years of age. At that time he went into his father's candle-shop to help make

candles for the people of Boston. He did not like this occupation and soon grew tired of it. Then his father apprenticed him to his brother James, who published a newspaper. Franklin liked this business better.

While Franklin was at work for his brother, one of his duties was to deliver the papers to subscribers. One day, in hurrying around a corner of the street, he suddenly ran against the table where an old woman was selling apples, and the apples rolled off upon the sidewalk. Benjamin picked them up and made his apologies to the old lady. She was pleased with his intelligence and began to talk to him.

"Do you ever dream, my little man?" she said. "Oh, yes," he replied, "I dream sometimes when I've eaten too much supper." "Well, do you believe in dreams?" "Oh, yes," said Franklin, "I believe in dreams—that is, I believe that I dream and other people dream." "Yes," said she, "but do your dreams come true?" "Well, no. I don't think they do usually. Do yours?" "Oh, yes," said the old lady, "my dreams always come true, and I dreamed about you last night." "Did you? Well, what did you dream?" "I dreamed that you bought this book and that you became a very wise man." "Well, well! Indeed, what is the book?" and he picked it up and looked at it. "How much do you ask for it?" "Only sixpence, sir." "Well, I think it would be too bad for your dream not to prove true just for sixpence, so I will buy it."

He went away with this book, which was a copy of the third volume of Addison's "Spectator." With the book he was delighted. He was charmed not only with the thought, but with the elegant way in which it was expressed. He would read one of the short papers, close the book, and rewrite it, partly in his own language. Then, comparing his

work with Addison's, he was quite inclined to say that Addison's was the better. In this way he found that a good deal depends upon how thoughts are expressed, and he began to study style.

If you will read his autobiography, you will find that he tells in a charming way how he left Boston when he was



YOUNG FRANKLIN LAUGHED AT BY HIS FUTURE WIFE.

seventeen years old, went to New York, and from there to Philadelphia. You will be greatly interested in his story of how he walked up Market Street, Sunday morning, with a loaf of bread under each arm and munching a third, and how Miss Read stood at the door of her father's house laughing at him. Then you will find afterward that this same Miss Read became Mrs. Benjamin Franklin.

Franklin's first visit to England was when he was eighteen years of age. On reaching London he sought for work in a printing-office. The foreman said: "Where are you from?" Franklin replied: "From America." "From America!" says the printer. "And can you set type?" "Try me and see," said Franklin.

He took the composing-stick in his hand, examined the case of types, noticing that the letters were arranged in the

boxes in the same way that they were in America, and within four minutes he set with perfect accuracy the following sentences:

“Nathaniel said unto him, Can there any good thing come out of Nazareth? Philip saith unto him, Come and see.”

When he was twenty years of age he returned to Philadelphia, and really began his life-work in that city. He published a newspaper when he was twenty-three years old; he kept a stationery shop, and soon began to publish “Poor Richard’s Almanac.”

This almanac brought him large profits, and he continued it for many years. “Poor Richard’s Almanac” contained a great many homely maxims, which made it very popular and which had a good influence upon the habits and morals of the people. Here are a few of these maxims:

“Then plough deep while sluggards sleep,
And you shall have corn to sell and to keep.”

“Vessels large may venture more,
But little boats should keep near shore.”

“Handle your tools without mittens: remember that the cat in gloves catches no mice.”

“The sleeping fox catches no poultry.”

“Diligence is the mother of good luck, and God gives all things to industry.”

“Silks and satins,
Scarlet and velvets,
Put out the kitchen fire.”

“Many estates are spent in getting,
Since women for tea forsook spinning and knitting,
And men for punch forsook hewing and splitting.”

“He that by the plough would thrive
Himself must either hold or drive.”

Franklin rose rapidly in the esteem of the people. He was chosen to fill many offices; he was postmaster of Philadelphia and a member of the city government; he was clerk as well as representative to the legislature; and he was postmaster-general for the English colonies.

He also served the people by his great inventions; he sent a kite up in a thunder-storm and showed that lightning was the same as electricity; he made the Franklin stove, which proved much better than the old-fashioned large fire-places. He desired to aid education as far as possible; he founded the University of Pennsylvania, and he started the first public library in Philadelphia.

When Franklin had become greatly interested in his studies, they were interrupted by the struggle which led up to the Revolutionary War. Franklin was appointed by the people of Pennsylvania as their representative to the British Government. From this time onward his mind and time were mostly occupied in public affairs.

Franklin tried his best to prevent the passage of the Stamp Act, but it was passed and the necessary results followed. The Stamp Act led to the next step, and that to the next, and so on, until the Revolution came, which ended in the independence of the colonies. Franklin was one of the last to believe that independence was necessary. Still, when the time came, Franklin heartily yielded and signed the Declaration of Independence.

Franklin was sent to France to represent the government of the new republic at the Court of Paris. The war went on; the contest was uneven between this little republic with its small army and the great power of England with its experi-

enced generals. But Washington overcame the difficulties, and the army was finally victorious through the help of France, which Franklin by his genius and popularity had secured. Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown and the war was at an end.

Next came the treaty of peace with Great Britain. In that treaty the most important question was what should be our



FRANKLIN AND THE QUEEN OF FRANCE.

western boundaries. Franklin and John Jay of New York finally succeeded in securing for this country the territory north of the Ohio, so carrying the western bounds of the republic to the Mississippi River.

Franklin was now an old man. Soon after the making of this treaty he returned to his native land for the last time. Yet he had strength enough to engage in one more great work for his country. When he was bowed down by the



FRANKLIN AT THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION ALLUDING TO THE "RISING SUN" CARVED ON THE PRESIDENT'S CHAIR.

burden of more than four-score years, he was appointed by the State of Pennsylvania as a member of that great convention which was to frame the Constitution of the United States of America.

For four months during the heat of summer Franklin daily met with his colleagues in the old state-house in Phila-

delphia, in "Independence Hall," giving to his country those wise counsels which came from his long life and varied experiences, his great mental ability, and his remarkable genius. This convention had a very difficult task to perform. The delegates represented different States, under different conditions, and it was almost impossible to agree upon a new Constitution that would be approved by the States they represented.

More than a month passed by before any successful agreement had taken place among the members. One morning when the convention had assembled, Franklin arose and said:

"How has it happened, sir, that we have not hitherto once thought of humbly applying to the Father of Lights to illuminate our understandings? In the be-

ginning of the contest with Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayers in this room for the divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard; and they were graciously answered. Have we now forgotten that powerful Friend, or do we imagine we no longer need His assistance? I have lived, sir, a long time; and the longer I live the more convincing proofs I see of this truth, *that God governs in the affairs of men.* And if a sparrow cannot fall to the ground



"INDEPENDENCE HALL," IN PHILADELPHIA.

without His notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without His aid?"

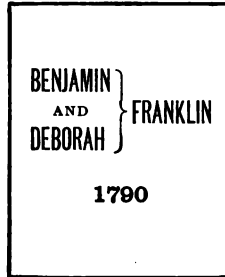
The convention finally succeeded in framing a Constitution that all could agree to. It was not perfect, but it was clearly the best that could be obtained. Franklin said of it, in a speech to the convention just before the vote was taken: "Thus I consent, sir, to this Constitution, because I expect no better and because I am not sure that this is not the best."

While the different members of the convention were signing the Constitution, Franklin stood rubbing his eye-glasses and looking toward the president's chair, on the back of which was represented the sun upon the horizon, shooting its slanting rays upward. Franklin turned to the member standing near him, and remarked that painters have found it difficult to distinguish in their art a rising from a setting sun. "I have," said he, "often and often, in the course of the session and the vicissitudes of my hopes and fears as to its issue, looked at that picture behind the president without being able to tell whether the sun was rising or setting; but now at length I have the happiness to know that the sun of America is rising."

Franklin continued to exert himself for the public good until the very end of his life. Just before his death he signed a memorial to Congress, praying for the abolition of slavery in the United States, and the very day before he died, in the midst of extreme suffering, he finished a paper upon this subject. His age was a little above eighty-four years.

Without question, Benjamin Franklin was one of the greatest men of his age. When the news of his death reached France, the National Assembly put on mourning. The Frenchman, Turgot, said of Franklin: "He snatched the thunderbolt from the sky and the sceptre from tyrants."

Franklin and his wife were buried in the graveyard of Christ Church, Philadelphia, at the corner of Fifth and Arch Streets. Over the two graves is a large stone slab, bearing this inscription:



When Franklin was a young man and a printer in Philadelphia, he wrote his own epitaph:

THE BODY
OF
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
PRINTER,

(Like the cover of an old book,
Its contents torn out,
And stript of its lettering and gilding,)

LIES HERE, FOOD FOR WORMS.
BUT THE WORK SHALL NOT BE LOST,
FOR IT WILL (as he believed) APPEAR ONCE MORE
IN A NEW AND MORE ELEGANT EDITION,
REVISED AND CORRECTED

BY
THE AUTHOR.

156 FIRST STEPS IN THE HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY.

State some of the changes in American life that Franklin saw.

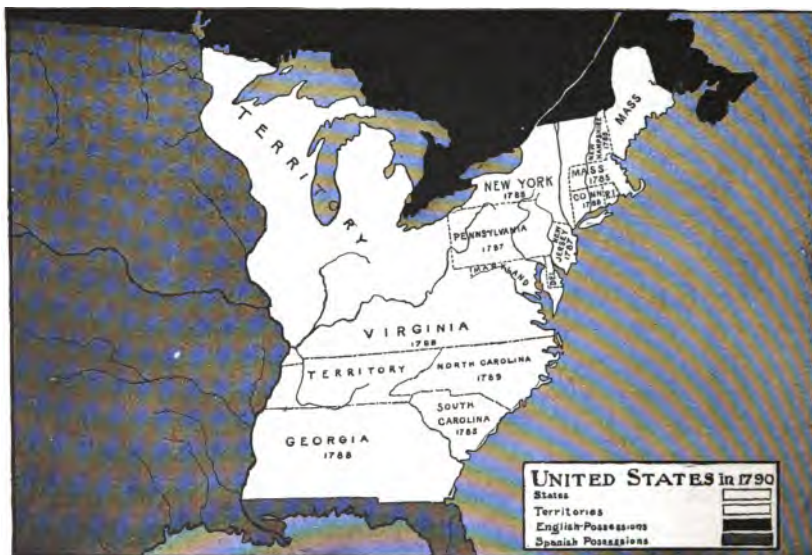
Tell the story of the book and its value to Franklin.

Give an account of "Poor Richard's Almanac."

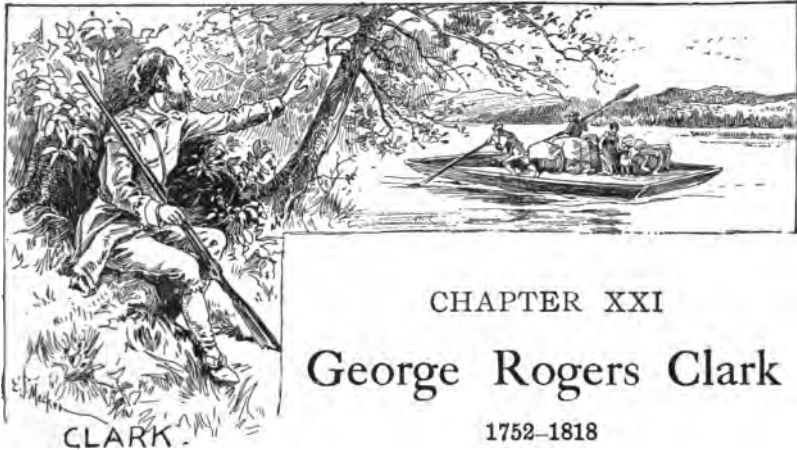
State some of the ways in which Franklin served his countrymen.

Tell what Franklin had to do with the Stamp Act; with the Declaration of Independence; with the Treaty of Peace; with the Constitution of the United States.

Why do you suppose young Benjamin disliked the candle business? What different things are mentioned that helped Franklin to become a writer? Do you understand why Franklin set up those particular sentences for the London printer? What do we mean by "homely" maxims? Why should we "handle our tools without mittens"? How do "silks and satins put out the kitchen fire"? Who passed the Stamp Act and how did Franklin try to prevent its passage? What did Franklin do in France for the United States? Why was Franklin one of the greatest men of his age?



THE YOUNG NATION AT ITS START.



CHAPTER XXI

George Rogers Clark

1752-1818

A FEW days after General Washington and his little patriotic army entered Boston, in the spring of 1776, a young boy was hurriedly walking along a trail in the woods of what is now Kentucky. As he passed a spring, bubbling up by the side of the path, he saw a wild duck drinking the cool waters. Like every pioneer boy, he was an expert shot, and in a few moments the duck was roasting over a fire which the boy had kindled.

Suddenly the youth was startled by the sound of a step; but it was a firm tread, not the stealthy glide of an Indian moccasin. Looking up, he saw a young, soldierly appearing man approaching; a man "square-built, thick-set, with high, broad forehead, and sandy hair." The newcomer briskly called out:

"How do you do, my little fellow? What is your name? Ar'n't you afraid of being in the woods by yourself?"

The voice of the stranger was pleasing and cordial. The boy felt no fear of him, and invited him to taste the duck. The man was evidently hungry, for he continued to taste

until the duck was entirely eaten. Then the boy asked his new friend what his name was.

"My name is Clark," was the answer, "and I have come out to see what you brave fellows are doing, and to help you if you need any help."

George Rogers Clark, who thus suddenly arrived at Harrodsburg, had come, on foot and alone, from Virginia. He was twenty-three years of age, and well educated for those days. Born in western Virginia, he grew up a great hunter; he was from boyhood familiar with frontier life, always exposed to Indian attack. He had learned surveying in his youth, and, armed with axe and rifle, chain and compass, he had become so used to tramping through the wilderness and the forests that he dared to travel to Kentucky without companions.

Such a life as it was in Kentucky in those days! Ordinarily the families moved into the new country in groups. First they built a stockade fort for common use. This was a square piece of land, surrounded by a palisade or wall of upright logs. At the corners were strong blockhouses, also made of logs, and fitted with portholes, through which guns could be fired. Within this palisade were cabins, so built that the back of the cabin was a portion of the palisade itself. Entrance to this fort was by a great gate, which was made as firm as possible and provided with strong bars to keep it shut against the most violent attack.

The families also had their own cabins upon the farms or "clearings" at greater or less distances from the fort. They came to the fort only when there was war with the Indians or when they feared an attack. Those days of anxiety and constant fear can hardly be understood by us.

At any time the word of warning might come. Often it

came at night. Then the family, quietly sleeping in their little cabins, far removed perhaps from any neighbor, would hear a tapping at the door. Instantly all the older people would be awake, for they were always watchful and could easily be aroused by the slightest sound. In a moment every one would be in motion. The father would seize his gun and ammunition. The mother would wake and dress the



A MIDNIGHT ESCAPE TO THE FORT.

children. The older ones would carry the younger, perhaps, or at least some household article, and, with as little delay as possible, the house would be deserted.

A light they did not dare to have. Not a sound was it safe to make. The greatest care was used not to waken the baby, who would be sure to cry. To the other children, the word *Indian* was enough to prevent a whisper. Thus the family hurried along the trail to the fort. The men then spent the rest of the night in making every preparation for the expected attack. If it did not come, all waited through the day in readiness for the dreaded warwhoop the following night.

Perhaps the Indians did not come; then the families would return home in a day or two, only to be ready again for the

next alarm. Perhaps they would go too soon; perhaps the message would not arrive in time. Then the result was too terrible almost for thought.

Such was life in Kentucky and Tennessee at the beginning of the Revolution. Such was life in other new territories and States at a later day. Nevertheless, the hardy pioneers continued to press forward. Taking their lives in their hands, they continually moved westward, leaving the more settled regions behind them. Many men seemed to be unable to live near their fellow-men; the uninhabited wilderness alone pleased them. Like the father of Kit Carson, they would move farther into the forests because neighbors had come within three miles of them. Others would continue in their new home and see the little fort become a village, the village become a town, and the town become a city. They would let other hardy adventurers carry the advancing settlements farther west.

When Wolfe won the battle of Quebec and laid down his life, the English settlers all lived east of the Alleghany Mountains. By the treaty with France (1763), however, all the region between the mountains and the Mississippi River had been ceded to Great Britain. When the Revolution began, a few pioneers had crossed the mountains and had settled in what is now Kentucky and Tennessee. North of the Ohio no English settlements had been begun, though some traders were traveling through this great Northwest, buying furs of the Indians.

The French had built a few forts to hold this land, in the years between La Salle and Wolfe. These the British government now held. The most important were Detroit, now in Michigan; Kaskaskia, near the Mississippi River, on the western side of the Illinois; and Vincennes, on the Wabash,

in southwestern Indiana. It was very important for the final success of the United States that we should hold all this western territory, rather than that any foreign power should possess it.

Neither Congress nor Washington's army paid any attention to this territory during the entire war. Congress did not appreciate its value, and the army had all that it could attend to near the coast. One man, and one only, seemed to realize how important the region would be to the United States, and also that it could be obtained in spite of the neglect of Congress.

A year after Clark arrived in Kentucky he was carefully making plans to capture the whole of the great Northwest. Accordingly, he sent scouts into the Illinois region, who brought back to him reports concerning the fort at Kaskaskia and its condition. Then he hastened to Virginia to seek assistance from the State government. He went to Virginia, because that colony had always claimed this western territory as a part of the grant to Virginia.

Leaving Harrodsburg in October (1777), Clark started on foot, and in a month, after traveling six hundred and twenty miles, he reached his father's house. Resting here but a day, he hastened on to Williamsburg, where he was delighted to hear the news of the surrender of Burgoyne.

Clark at once laid his plans before Patrick Henry, the governor of the State. Henry was just the man to approve the daring scheme, and entered into it at once. He appointed Clark colonel, gave him permission to raise seven companies of militia, loaned him twelve hundred pounds, and gave him an order for supplies to be obtained at Pittsburg.

Clark raised a force of a hundred and fifty men, and, with his supplies, left Pittsburg the next May. With him went a

number of families for whom the little band acted as an escort. The party floated down the Ohio River, a distance of hundreds of miles, nearly all the way through an unbroken forest and past wild lands with no white inhabitants.

They reached the Falls of the Ohio, where Clark left the settlers, thereby laying the foundations of Louisville.

The little army took the boats again and floated farther down the Ohio. Landing opposite the mouth of the Ten-



CLARK AT THE BRITISH DANCE.

nessee River, concealing the boats in a small creek, and resting but a single night, as he desired to surprise the fort, Clark struck out rapidly across the hills toward Kaskaskia.

Arriving near the fort on the evening of the fourth of July (1778), Clark made preparation for the attack. Dividing his force into two divisions, he spread one out around the town and led the other directly to the walls of the fort.

The surprise was complete. Within, a dance was in progress, and even the sentinels had left their posts. Clark placed his men at the entrance; then he quietly entered a rear gate and the dance-hall itself. There he stood, silently leaning against a doorpost, watching the dancers.

Most of the Indians who usually idled around the fort

were at the time on a hunting expedition, but one of them had not gone; he lay upon the floor near the entrance. No one else noticed the newcomer; but the Indian gazed earnestly at him, and then sprang to his feet with a war-whoop.

The dance ceased; all was confusion. But Clark quietly told them to continue. He added, however: "You are now dancing under Virginia, and not under Great Britain." The men then burst in, the commandant, Rocheblave, was seized, and Kaskaskia changed hands without bloodshed. The people were mainly French, and were not unwilling to take the oath of allegiance to the United States.

The French priest at Kaskaskia offered to go to Vincennes and persuade the French people there to yield voluntarily to the United States. In this he was successful; the Stars and Stripes were hoisted, and the people met in the church and swore allegiance to the new Republic. Governor Hamilton, the English officer in command at Detroit, led out a large force and retook Vincennes without opposition. He had five hundred men with him, while Clark had but one hundred at this time at Kaskaskia. The latter did not dare make an attack, and winter found them both still waiting for the next move.

Little by little, however, Hamilton's force grew smaller, until at the end of January (1779) Clark learned that the British commander had but eighty men at the fort. He decided upon an immediate attack. Early in February Clark set out from Kaskaskia with one hundred and seventy men. The distance to Vincennes was over two hundred miles, across a country covered with water. The ice in the rivers had melted and freshets had overflowed the land.

The men, with little food, suffering severely from hunger,

were obliged to wade for miles through water breast deep, with floating ice all around them. That was a terrible march. The sufferings of the men cannot be told. After sixteen days of such traveling, the little army reached Vincennes, surprised the town, and laid siege to the fort. The next day Hamilton and the garrison surrendered.

Thus Colonel Clark, with a few men, by his own bravery, his strong personal character, and his great military skill, in



THE OLD "NORTHWEST."

spite of untold obstacles and terrible sufferings, conquered the entire Northwest Territory. He obtained possession of all the important forts and settlements, and gave to the United States complete possession of the Ohio River and the eastern bank of the Mississippi as far south as the Florida boundary. When the treaty

of peace was made with England (1783), the United States, after much discussion, finally secured this Western region, largely on the ground that Clark had conquered the territory and held military possession of it at the time the treaty was made.

Clark captured the country for Virginia and under the direction of the Virginia government. The assembly of that State thanked him and his officers and men "for their extraordinary resolution and perseverance, and for the important services which they had rendered their country." Afterward it granted two hundred acres of land to each of the soldiers.

Give an account of how Clark entered Kentucky.

Describe a frontier palisade.

Tell the story of an Indian alarm.

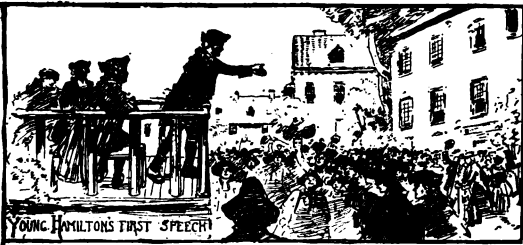
State the situation in the Western region at the beginning of the Revolution.

Tell the story of Clark's journey to Virginia; of his voyage down the Ohio; of his capture of Kaskaskia; of his march to Vincennes.

In what was Clark like Washington? Why was a light not permitted nor sound allowed, when the settlers were hastening to the fort? Do you know of any Western fort that is now a city? Why was possession of the Western region "necessary to the success of the United States"? Has it been of any advantage other than a military one? Was an escort needed by families who were moving west down the Ohio River? Why were the French settlers at Kaskaskia and Vincennes ready to take the oath of allegiance to the United States?



PIONEER FAMILIES PUSHING INTO THE NORTHWEST.



CHAPTER XXII

Alexander Hamilton

1757-1804

LESS than a month after Samuel Adams had locked the doors of the court-room at Salem and had put the key in his pocket, a meeting of patriots was called in New York City (July, 1774). This meeting was held in the open air and was attended by crowds of citizens. The speakers were quiet and without enthusiasm; the speeches did not arouse the people; the meeting was proving a failure.

Near the platform a young student was standing. He had been in the colonies two years only, but he had become a most earnest patriot. He felt that the people would never be brought to oppose English oppression by any such half-hearted remarks. He thought that many things that ought to be said had not been said.

Quickly he pushed his way through and climbed upon the platform. When there was a suitable pause, the youth stepped to the front without being announced or introduced.

For a moment the boy stood hesitating, as the throng stared, surprised at his boldness. He was but seventeen years old and looked younger. In another moment a laugh

would have followed, or perhaps cries to come down and not interrupt his elders. But the boy's embarrassment was over and he began to speak.

He was a born orator, and in a few minutes his thoughts came faster than he could utter them. The crowd listened with close attention as he gave clear and sound reasons for resisting the king. A murmur ran through the audience: "Hear the collegian! Hear the collegian!" The meeting was no longer a failure; the people of New York were ready to follow Patrick Henry and Samuel Adams.

Who was the seventeen-year-old boy? His name was Alexander Hamilton, and this was the first public step in a life full of service for his adopted country. During the next two years Hamilton was busy in the cause of the colonists. He wrote pamphlets replying to the leading Tories of New York. He took part in public meetings and spent much time in studying military affairs. When the British army left Boston and came to New York, Hamilton was appointed commander of a new artillery company, though still less than twenty years of age.

One incident that happened during the interval between Hamilton's first public speech and the arrival of the British army in New York illustrates a remarkable trait of his character.

He was but a boy and filled with all a boy's rashness and daring. Yet he had the cool mind of a much older man. More than once Hamilton was able to prevent the mobs in New York from committing violence. The British ship-of-war *Asia* at one time opened fire upon the town. At once all was commotion and excitement. The "Liberty Boys" began to threaten injury to every Tory in the city. Among the most prominent of these Tories was Dr. Cooper, the president

of the college. The mob rushed to his house. On the steps they found Hamilton ahead of them, determined to prevent or delay their entrance. He at once began to speak, urging them to show reason and not to commit any rash act. Just at this point President Cooper called out to the crowd from an upper window, advising them not to be guided by such a madman as Hamilton. Then he fled by a rear entrance.



HAMILTON LEADING THE CHARGE AT YORKTOWN.

Hamilton had perhaps saved the old man's life, while the worthy president supposed that his young student was urging the people to attack him. It was a fine act in the boy thus to risk his life and his influence "in behalf of law, order, and mercy."

Five years passed before the surrender of Cornwallis. Much of this time young Hamilton was an aide on the staff of General Washington and met many leaders of the

day. His principal employment was to answer the many letters which the general received; but he was present at all the great battles and always acted with courage and bravery. In the siege of Yorktown Hamilton led a brilliant charge against the enemy, attacked them with great vigor, and carried everything before him.

Hamilton was much more than a mere orator or a gallant soldier. He was an earnest student of all matters connected

with the government. Soon after the war was over he began to see that the States must be united more closely. He was certain that, though they had kept together during the war, because of their common danger, they would quarrel now that peace had come. So, together with George Washington, James Madison, and other statesmen, he wrote and worked for a convention to form a more perfect union.

Four years after the peace of 1783, the Federal Convention met in Philadelphia. For four months the delegates from the different States worked in secret, until they had prepared the Constitution of the United States.

Before this could be used it must be accepted by at least nine of the States. As the proposed Constitution was very different from the form of government under which the country had been governed for several years, many people did not like it and tried to have it defeated.

For many months the contest for and against the new Constitution continued in the different States. One by one they accepted it, until finally the decision seemed to rest on New York. If that State adopted it, the necessary nine States would have been obtained. The New York convention met with forty-six members opposed to the Constitution and nineteen in its favor. Day after day discussion followed discussion, and Hamilton was on his feet continually, answering objections and giving arguments. Finally the convention voted, and three more votes were given for the Constitution than against it. Hamilton had won, and the Constitution of the United States was adopted.

Now the new government must be begun and Presidential electors chosen in the different States. There was but one man thought of for President—the general who had so skil-

fully carried the army through the Revolution and had then quietly retired to his home at Mount Vernon. He was truly "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." Every vote was cast for George Washington for President. John Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice-President.

When Congress had counted the electoral votes, messengers were sent to notify Washington and Adams. The Presi-

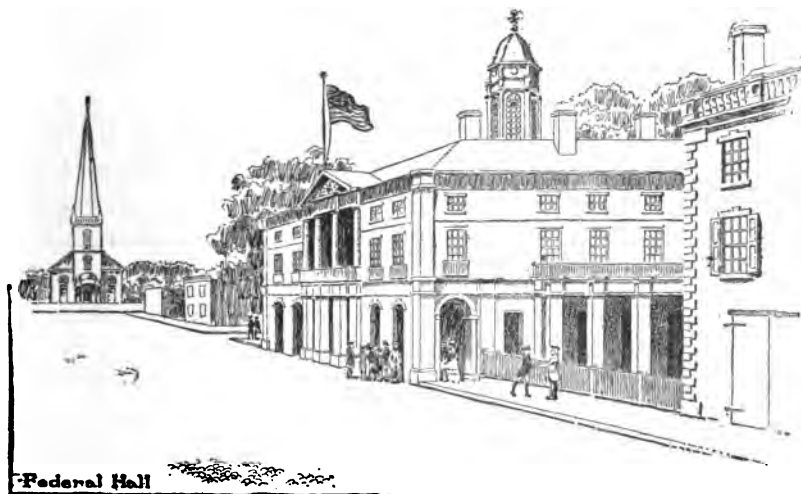


WASHINGTON'S JOURNEY TO HIS INAUGURATION.

dent-elect left Mount Vernon and traveled in his carriage to New York City. Everywhere he was enthusiastically welcomed by the people, who rode by his carriage as he came into and left the towns; who gave him public dinners; who scattered flowers in his path; who built triumphal arches under which he must go. From the New Jersey shore he was rowed to the city by thirteen oarsmen, in a handsomely decorated barge, and was saluted by the firing of thirteen guns.

On the 30th of April, 1789, Washington was inaugurated

President at Federal Hall on Wall Street. He passed through the troops into the hall, where Congress awaited him. When the Vice-President announced that everything was ready for the oath of office to be taken, the President-elect went to the balcony of the building. This overlooked the street, which was densely packed with citizens who waited in respectful



FEDERAL HALL, NEW YORK, WHERE WASHINGTON WAS INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.

silence. Washington solemnly took the oath to "preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States," and with closed eyes whispered:

"So help me, God!"

Then the air was rent by the joyous cry of the people: "God bless our Washington! Long live our beloved Washington!"

The minister from France afterward wrote: "Tears of joy were seen to flow in the hall of the Senate, at church, and

even in the streets, and no sovereign ever reigned more completely in the hearts of his subjects than Washington in the hearts of his fellow-citizens."

After the inauguration the new President chose his Cabinet—men who were to advise him and to help him carry on the government. The two leading officers were the Secretary of State and the Secretary of the Treasury. Washington appointed Thomas Jefferson to the first position; of him we will read in another chapter. He chose Alexander Hamilton to have charge of the Treasury.

Here the great mental powers of the young man showed themselves. The government of the United States had been unable to pay its debts for more than a dozen years. It had borrowed money and could not pay the interest; it still owed the soldiers who had fought for it in the Revolution. Its credit was gone; by this we mean that it had little or no money, and no one would lend it any.

It was Hamilton's task to give the government a new credit; he must provide ways by which money could be obtained; he must make it certain to everybody that the United States could and would pay all its debts. All this Alexander Hamilton, as Secretary of the Treasury, did. He thus performed a service for his country which may be considered as important as is the service of a great general in carrying on a war.

Had the United States not been able to pay its debts, it would have failed just as surely as if it had not obtained its independence by the War of the Revolution.

Hamilton remained in the Cabinet of the first President until his great work was done. Then he resigned, and practised law until he died at the early age of forty-seven.

Meanwhile Washington was unanimously chosen a second

time, but declined a third term. He also retired from public life, and spent his last years at his home at Mount Vernon. Here he died, after having served his country faithfully all his life, and after having been honored by his country with every honor which they could give him.

Describe the meeting in New York; the steps taken by Hamilton before the Revolution began; his work during the Revolution; his part in obtaining the adoption of the new Constitution; his service as Secretary of the Treasury.

Tell the story of Washington's journey and inauguration.

How did Hamilton prevent the meeting in New York from being a failure? What did he have that the other speakers lacked? How did Hamilton's position on the staff of General Washington aid him in his later life? What caused the great change in the voting in the New York Convention? Why did Washington travel from Mount Vernon to New York in his own carriage? How else could he have traveled? Why were there thirteen oarsmen and thirteen guns? Is credit any less necessary to a nation than to a business man?



THE OLD CONTINENTAL MONEY.



CHAPTER XXIII

Thomas Jefferson

1743-1826

A FEW months after General Wolfe's victory at Quebec (1759), a seventeen-year-old boy entered Williamsburg, the capital of Virginia. The youth belonged to one of the best families of the country, and had friends and relatives almost from one end of the colony to the other.

Yet young Thomas Jefferson had never before seen a town, nor even a village of twenty houses. To him Williamsburg, with its two hundred houses and its thousand inhabitants, seemed almost as large as London itself; to him the splendor and elegance of the first families of Virginia, as they lived their gay life when the colonial legislature was in session, were hardly less brilliant than those surrounding the king of England at the Court of St. James.

This young man had come to the capital to attend William and Mary College, the second oldest college in all the colonies. He was fond of study and spent more hours over his books than most of the students did; yet he never failed to take needed exercise, being especially skilled in horseback riding. While at Williamsburg he became acquainted with

nearly all of the leaders in Virginia life, and thus obtained an education that does not come from books.

Five years after Jefferson first entered Williamsburg he was still at the capital, studying law. One of his earliest friends, Patrick Henry by name, a man a few years older than he, a new member of the House of Burgesses, was visiting young Jefferson. During this visit the news of the passing of the Stamp Act reached the town, and this action of Parliament was thoroughly discussed in the student's room.

One day Jefferson learned that Henry proposed to make a speech in the House, urging resistance to the Stamp Act. When the day came he stood in the rear of the hall, listening to the glowing words of Henry's famous speech.

Let us listen with Jefferson for a moment. Let us imagine the feelings of the patriotic youth as he hears his friend, in the midst of his enthusiasm, say: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—and here he paused. What would be the end of the sentence? Did Henry propose some harm to the king?

Here and there in the hall was heard the cry, "Treason! Treason!" and it would have been treason had Henry finished as they expected. But no! after the pause came the words, "George III. may profit by their example." Henry was



PATRICK HENRY IN HIS GREAT SPEECH
AGAINST THE STAMP ACT.

right. Had George III. been wiser, had he read history aright, and had he profited by former examples, he might have saved the colonies. He did not, and he lost them.

But here was Thomas Jefferson drinking in every word and profiting by it. From this hall he went to take his share in the coming conflict. A few years of quiet, in which the young man married and built his charming home at Monticello, and the struggle broke out. Jefferson prepared the instructions for Virginia's delegates to the First Continental Congress.

He was himself a member of the Second Congress. Here, in June (1776), a committee was chosen by ballot to draw up a Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson headed the list, and with him were John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and Robert R. Livingston of New York. When the committee met they urged Jefferson to prepare the draft; he consented, and, with a few changes of words, the immortal Declaration of Independence was adopted as Jefferson wrote it. For this he has rightly been called the "Framer of the Declaration."

From this Congress Jefferson returned to the Virginia House of Burgesses, and three years later succeeded Patrick Henry as governor of the State. This position he filled while the British armies were active in the South, and he was still governor of Virginia when Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown. After a few years as minister to France, succeeding Franklin, Jefferson became Secretary of State, which position he held until after Washington was reëlected President. Then he retired for a few years of rest at his home in Virginia.

When Washington declined a third term as President, the

people of the United States were not agreed as to his successor. There were two parties, Federalists and Republicans; the former selected the Vice-President, John Adams, as their candidate for President; while the other party were in favor of Jefferson. Adams was elected. Four years later another election took place. Adams was defeated and Jefferson was chosen President.

Then for eight years (1801-1809), Thomas Jefferson was at the head of the nation, at a time when there was constant danger of war between the United States and either England or France. The war did not come, however, until three years after Jefferson had refused a third term as President.

Among the many great acts during these eight years, none was more important than that by which the territory of the United States was doubled. When the treaty of peace with England was signed in 1783, the United States had for its western boundary the Mississippi River. Spain owned the western bank of this great river throughout its whole extent, and also both banks near its mouth. Contrary to treaty, Spain closed New Orleans as a port of deposit for our citizens. This was a serious injury to the new States and territories west of the Alleghany Mountains.

But just as Jefferson became President, Spain sold to France not only the island of New Orleans, but also the great province of Louisiana, from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains.

Jefferson now determined, if it were possible, to buy New Orleans, and Congress voted two million dollars for the purpose. Robert R. Livingston, our minister to France, was directed to try to purchase the island from Napoleon, and James Monroe was sent to France to assist him.

While Monroe is making his long and tedious voyage

across the Atlantic, let us see what is going on at Paris. When Livingston received by letter his instructions from President Jefferson to purchase the island of New Orleans, he at once approached Talleyrand, the French secretary of state. But Talleyrand would not discuss the question, and turned the conversation into another channel. Again and again Livingston pressed the subject, but without success.

Meantime difficulties had arisen between France and England. Napoleon, who was now at the head of the French Government, saw that war with Great Britain was sure to come. He feared that the English navy would capture New Orleans and take possession of the whole province of Louisiana. Then the thought came to him, why should he not sell that whole province to the United States. If war was coming he needed money, and, if the sale could be made, the price that the United States would pay for the province would greatly help his treasury.

When Napoleon had thought out this plan, he called to him two members of his cabinet to discuss the question. This was on Easter Day, 1803. To these two ministers he outlined his plan and asked their opinion. Berthier, the secretary of war, was the first to speak. He opposed the scheme with great zeal. The province was a valuable one and long ago it had belonged to France. They had now just regained possession of it. It would be cowardly to sell it for fear the British would capture it. After he had made his argument in opposition to the plan, Marbois, the secretary of the treasury, replied, favoring Napoleon's proposition.

Now think of these three men quietly discussing this subject all the evening, until late at night. The next morning, early, Napoleon had decided the question and sent for Marbois. He said to him:

“The time for inaction has past. I renounce Louisiana. It is not only New Orleans that I will cede, it is the whole colony, without any reservation; but I renounce it with the greatest regret. I direct you to negotiate this affair; have an interview this very day with Mr. Livingston.”

That Monday evening Livingston wrote a letter to President Jefferson, and in it he said: “While I was at dinner to-day I looked out of the window and saw the secretary

of the treasury coming up the avenue. He had never before called upon me unannounced. As soon as I was at liberty I received him in the drawing-room, and we talked of this and that. When he had gone I was quite as much at a loss to know what he had come for as when he came. Dur-



NAPOLÉON DECIDES TO SELL LOUISIANA.

ing our conversation, however, I mentioned the subject of New Orleans, and, after reflecting a moment, he asked me why we didn't propose to buy the whole province. I replied: 'We do not want it. We have no money to pay for it. We have no authority to buy it, the Constitution not giving any authority to the general government to increase our territory.' ”

But the next day Marbois and Livingston had another interview upon the subject. It soon became apparent to Livingston that Napoleon would be willing to sell the whole province, and on the arrival of Mr. Monroe our two ministers, after carefully considering the whole question, were so

impressed with the great advantage which would come to our country from controlling this vast area, that they determined—although they had no authority to make such a treaty—to assume the responsibility.

And so they concluded a treaty with France by which that country ceded to the United States the entire province of Louisiana, embracing the whole country from the Gulf of

Mexico on the south to the British possessions on the north, and from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains.

This more than doubled the territory of the United States. When Napoleon signed the treaty, as he laid down the pen after affixing his name to the document, he said: "This accession of territory forever strengthens the power of the United

States, and I have just given to England a maritime rival that will sooner or later humble her pride."

Marbois signed the treaty; then Livingston and Monroe. When Mr. Monroe had written his name, he arose from the chair, turned to Mr. Livingston with manifest emotion, and the two shook hands. Then Livingston said:

"You and I have lived long and done many things for which our country will remember us with gratitude, but when we have gone from this world that which we have done



LIVINGSTON AND MONROE CONGRATULATING EACH OTHER ON THE PURCHASE OF LOUISIANA.



HOW THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE ENLARGED OUR COUNTRY.

to-day will stand out as the noblest work of our lives. The treaty which we have just signed has not been obtained by art or dictated by force. It is equally advantageous to the two countries and it will change vast solitudes into flourishing districts. From this day the United States takes its place among the powers of the first rank."

We paid for this extensive territory \$15,000,000. When the treaty became known to the American people they were divided in sentiment concerning its wisdom, but it was signed by the President, confirmed by the Senate, and, as Livingston said to Monroe, from that day the United States has ranked among the first nations of the earth.

Jefferson's first term as President was a great success. While he did not plan the purchase of Louisiana, yet it was consummated by him during this administration. He therefore received the credit for so important an event.

During his second term occurred the treason of Aaron Burr, who was Vice-President with Jefferson. Then came the embargo against British vessels. The times were stormy, and Jefferson's career was not without great opposition from the Federalists. He refused a third election, and James Madison became his successor.

It is a little remarkable that he and John Adams, the two immediate successors of Washington in the Presidency, should both have died on the same day, and that day the 4th of July, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the American Independence. Jefferson died at Monticello about one o'clock in the afternoon. Adams died at Quincy only a few hours later. Just before his death he said: "Thomas Jefferson still survives."

Give an account of Jefferson's first experience at Williamsburg.
Tell the story of Patrick Henry's famous speech in the House of Burgesses.

Give an account of the framing of the Declaration of Independence.

State the reasons for sending James Monroe to France.

Explain Napoleon's desire to sell Louisiana to the United States.

Describe the purchase of that great province.

From what you have learned concerning the Revolutionary War, which of the colonies do you think did the most toward American Independence? Which three men would you name as the most prominent orators who exerted the greatest influence upon the American people in favor of independence? Why do you think Jefferson refused a third term as President? Was the purchase of Louisiana a benefit to the United States? What advantages can you mention coming from this great increase of territory? Who deserves the most credit for the purchase of Louisiana?



A LADY AND GENTLEMAN OF THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.



A modern "Ocean Greyhound,"—made possible by Fulton's invention and energy.

A modern iron-clad. In Fulton's time wind was the warship's only motive power.

CHAPTER XXIV

Robert Fulton

1765-1815

WHAT a wonderful invention was the American steam-boat! Look at it to-day! The ferryboats that are constantly crossing the Hudson and the East River at New York—what could we do without them? Think what it would mean if we had no coast-line steamers from New York to Norfolk, to Savannah, to New Orleans; no elegant floating palaces plying up and down our great rivers, or between Buffalo and Duluth, or between New York and Fall River; no ocean liners, greyhounds of the sea, running with perfect regularity between this country and the ports of Europe; no steamers running with equal regularity between San Francisco and the ports of China, Japan, and elsewhere.

Passenger steamers and freight steamers are today doing a very large part of our carrying from one port to another in

our own country, and from one nation to another across the ocean.

The invention of the steamboat was a splendid triumph of genius. Like most other inventions, it was not entirely due to any one man. Many early attempts to use steam power for propelling vessels upon the water were made.

James Rumsey, of Maryland (in 1786), built a boat which was moved upon the Potomac River by steam at the rate of four miles an hour. In this boat the power was applied by forcing out at the stern a stream of water, which pushed the boat forward; the water having been taken in at the bows.

Meanwhile John Fitch, of Connecticut, experimented with his steamboat

on the Delaware River. His first boat, built in the same year, was propelled by paddles, moved by steam power, at a speed of three miles an hour; this was afterward increased to eight miles.

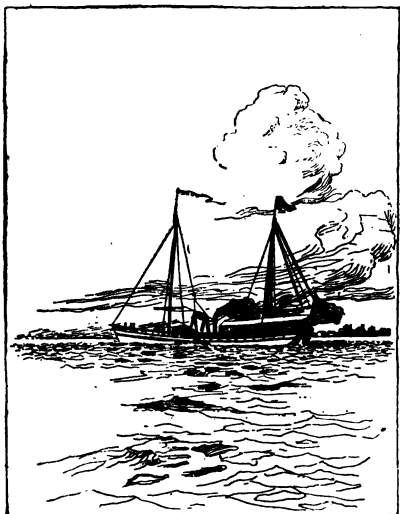
Four years later Captain Samuel Morey, of New Hampshire, built a small boat which he navigated upon the upper Connecticut River by steam power furnished by an engine of his own make. He continued his experiments for many years; at one time we find him running his little steam-



FITCH'S STEAMBOAT.

boat upon the Delaware River, and again building another boat in New York, in which he made the passage from that city to Hartford.

For some years, at the beginning of this century, John Stevens, of New York, was engaged in experimenting with the steamboat. All these experiments, while not entirely successful, yet gave real assistance to the inventors who followed them. The first man in this country to build a steamboat which succeeded in every way was Robert Fulton.



STEVENS' STEAMBOAT.

Robert Fulton was a native of Pennsylvania. Early in his life he showed a taste for drawing and painting. At the same time even from his childhood he was greatly interested in machinery, and

particularly in new inventions. When he was twenty-one years of age Fulton went to London, carrying letters of introduction to the famous painter, Benjamin West, also a native of Pennsylvania. West received him into his family, and Fulton was under his instruction, in his favorite art, for several years.

Fulton became interested in improving canals in England, and this turned his attention toward the use of steam in propelling boats. After this, we find him a member of the fam-

ily of Joel Barlow, an American poet, in Paris. Here he made experiments with a boat to be used in torpedo warfare.

Later still he took up again the subject of steam navigation. At this time he was encouraged by Robert R. Livingston, our minister to the French court, who had already experimented in America. Livingston furnished the money with which Fulton built a small boat near Paris. When he had run his boat a few times, Fulton sought to bring it to the attention of the French government. He succeeded in awakening the interest of the great Napoleon. He was directed to give a public exhibition of the boat in the presence of a committee of learned men.

For many days Fulton kept steadily at work, seeking to make every part as perfect as possible. The day before the trial the little steamboat was ready. That night Fulton found it difficult to sleep, so much depended on the morrow. Toward morning, when he had fallen into a doze, he was awakened by a knock at the door and the message that his boat was at the bottom of the river. The iron machinery had broken through, and both boat and engine had sunk.

Perhaps this failure was a blessing in disguise. The boat was probably too small to make a successful trip. The next time he would have a larger vessel. He determined to have a steamboat built in America which he fully believed would bring success.

Livingston agreed to pay the bills, and, acting under his advice, Fulton drew a plan for an engine to be built at Birmingham, England. He now crossed the Atlantic and at New York directed the building of the first really successful steamboat in America. It was completed, the great engine was properly placed within it, and, on the 11th day of August,

1807, it left the dock at New York City and steamed up the Hudson River.

The trip to Albany, a distance of about one hundred and fifty miles, was made upon this first voyage in thirty-two hours. The steamboat was named the *Clermont*, as a compliment to Livingston, that being the name of his country seat on the Hudson.

What an interesting sight it must have been to see this



THE FIRST TRIP OF FULTON'S "CLERMONT" UP THE HUDSON RIVER.

steamboat move slowly away from the pier at New York on that first memorable trip! Everybody had said it would not move; the scheme was impossible; machinery would never carry such a heavy boat through the water. They had laughed at Fulton; they had called him insane.

It was perfectly clear to everybody that the boat would not move; yet it did move. Then they said it would not go far—it would soon stop; but on it went, at the rate of about five miles an hour over the whole distance, until it reached Albany.

Its return trip was equally successful, and through the summer and fall it continued to make regular trips back and forth between New York and Albany.

The American steamboat was invented, and from that successful attempt prodigious results have been achieved.

Tell something about Rumsey's boat; Fitch's boat; Morey's boats; Stevens' boat.

Tell the story of Robert Fulton: as an artist; as an inventor of other things besides steamboats.

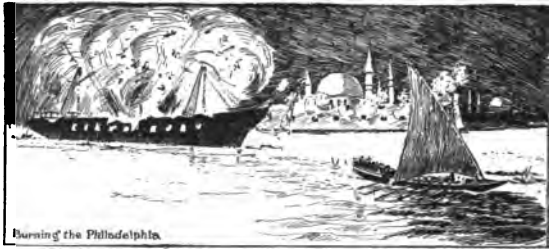
Give an account of Fulton's disappointment at Paris.

Tell the story of the *Clermont*.

What advantages has a steamboat over a sailing vessel? How did Fulton's skill in drawing aid him when he gave directions for the building of his boats and engines? Do you know what a torpedo is—that is, one that is used in war? Why did Fulton wish the French government to know about his steamboat? Did Fulton have any advantages or aids that Rumsey and the other early experimenters did not have?



STATUE OF ROBERT FULTON IN THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON



CHAPTER XXV. Stephen Decatur

1779-1820

DURING the first term that Thomas Jefferson was President, the United States was engaged in a naval war with Tripoli. This small nation, on the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, demanded that the United States should pay her a large sum of money; if we would not, Tripoli proposed to capture our merchant vessels wherever she could find them.

The United States refused to pay this tribute, and for four years our navy was employed in fighting these pirates. When peace was made, the United States had won for her navy a place among the navies of the world.

This naval war gave training to many sailors who, a few years later, were required to meet the navy of Great Britain, then called "The Mistress of the Seas." Many heroic encounters took place in the war with Tripoli, which showed the bravery of the sailors of the young nation formed by the thirteen States.

Among these incidents was one which caused the Congress of the United States to present a sword to the young lieutenant, its hero.

One of the largest and best of the American men of war, the *Philadelphia*, had been accidentally run aground in the very harbor of Tripoli. The sailors had been compelled to abandon it, and in a short time the people of Tripoli had taken possession. This was a great loss to the American fleet; a double loss, for it meant one less vessel for them and one more vessel for the enemy.

The abandoned ship was directly in range of the guns of the forts and war vessels of Tripoli. To try to recapture it would have been unwise; many lives would have been lost in an attempt that doubtless would have proved a failure. However, the daring lieutenant, one dark night, took the *Intrepid* and sailed slowly into the harbor.

This small vessel had been captured from the enemy and still had the appearance of being one of the Tripolitan boats. The *Intrepid* was brought directly to the side of the *Philadelphia*, and the lieutenant and his men leaped aboard. The Tripolitan crew fled in their boats to the shore; the American seamen set fire to the *Philadelphia*. Though the guns from the forts opened on them at once, yet the *Intrepid* sailed out of the harbor without losing a man.

Lieut. Stephen Decatur thus won for himself a place among the great American heroes.

Decatur was born in Maryland during the Revolutionary War. His father also was an officer in the American navy, and Stephen took his first voyage with him when he was but eight years of age. Before he was twenty he was a midshipman on board the *United States*. Young Decatur labored hard to make himself master of his profession, and he soon became an excellent sailor and a good officer. When but twenty-five years of age, because of his exploit at Tripoli, he was made a commodore in the American navy.

One day, as his ship was sailing in the open sea, the cry suddenly rang out, "Man overboard!" Sailors sprang to launch the boats, but Decatur instantly sprang into the sea and in a few moments succeeded in reaching the drowning man. He held him above the waves until the boats reached the spot, and both men were pulled aboard.

When the war with Great Britain, called the "War of 1812," broke out, Commodore Decatur was in command of the frigate *United States*. Soon after putting out to sea, Decatur fell in with the British frigate *Macedonian*, commanded by Captain Carden. The two vessels cleared their decks for action. Just before the battle commenced, little Jack Creamer, a lad of ten years, who had been allowed to make the cruise, though not old enough to be enlisted as one of the crew, started forward toward Decatur, touched his hat, and said to him: "Commodore, will you please to have my name put down on the muster roll?"

"Why, my lad?" replied the captain, surprised at the courage and confidence the little fellow manifested.

"So that I can draw my share of the prize-money, sir." Decatur gave the order that he should be enrolled, and Jack returned to the gun of which he was powder boy.

Then the carnage began. The guns of the *United States* were fired with such rapidity that the whole ship seemed to be one mass of flame and smoke from stem to stern. A shot soon carried away the mizzenmast of the *Macedonian*. One of the gunners exclaimed: "Ay, ay, Jack, we have made a brig of her." (You must remember that a ship has three masts, all square-rigged, while a brig has two; one of the ship's masts having been shot away, of course but two remained, and the gunner called it, therefore, a brig.) Decatur, who was standing by, immediately replied: "Take good aim,

my lad, at the mainmast, and she will soon be a sloop." (The sloop has but one mast.) Soon her fore and main topmasts went over the side, and her bowsprit, foreyard, and both remaining masts were all badly crippled.



DECATUR ON THE "UNITED STATES" CAPTURING THE BRITISH "MACEDONIAN."

A gunner saw his comrade desperately wounded at his side, and exclaimed to him: "Ah, my good fellow, I must attend to the enemy a few minutes longer; then I will look out for you. His colors must soon come down." "Let me live till I hear that," replied the wounded man, "and I shall

want care from nobody." In seventeen minutes more the *Macedonian* struck her colors, a complete wreck.

Soon after the action was ended, Decatur sent for Jack Creamer and said: "Well, Jack, we have taken her, and your share of the prize, if we get her safe into port, will probably be two hundred dollars. What will you do with it?"

"I will send half of it to my mother, sir, and the other half shall pay for my schooling."

"That is noble!" exclaimed Decatur.

The commodore now received Captain Carden on board the *United States*. That officer extended his sword to the victorious Decatur, but the brave commodore said to him:

"Sir, I cannot receive the sword of a man who has so bravely defended his ship." In a private letter to his wife the commodore wrote: "One-half of the satisfaction arising from this victory is destroyed in seeing the mortification of poor Carden, who deserved success as much as we did who had the good fortune to obtain it. I do all I can to console him."

But what a terrible thing such a naval battle is! While on the *United States* only seven were killed and five others wounded, on the *Macedonian*, out of a crew of three hundred, more than one-third were killed or wounded.

One of the officers who was sent by Commodore Decatur on board the *Macedonian* after the surrender, described the horrible scenes that he witnessed in the following words: "Fragments of the dead were distributed in every direction; the decks covered with blood; one continued agonizing yell of the unhappy wounded; a scene so horrible of my fellow-creatures I assure you deprived me very much of the pleasure of victory."

We have seen in the war with Spain how, by the vast im-



THE FAMOUS UNITED STATES VESSEL "CONSTITUTION" (OLD IRONSIDES).

From the painting by Marshall Johnson.

provements which have been made in warlike implements, the destruction of life to-day is immensely greater than at that period. It is to be hoped that the time is near when the leading nations of the world will agree to settle their disputes peacefully and make war impossible.

The battle between the *United States* and the *Macedonian* was but one in a long series of victories for our navy, and Commodore Decatur was only one among many distinguished naval commanders who brought the British government to show greater respect for our republic than she ever had done before.

In the first naval battle of the war, Capt. Isaac Hull, with the frigate *Constitution* (*Old Ironsides*, as it has been called), defeated the British *Guerriere*. The *Essex*, under the command of Captain Porter, won many victories and made a remarkable voyage on the Pacific Ocean. The United States frigate *Chesapeake* yielded to the British *Shannon* only after the death of Captain Lawrence, who had exclaimed, when mortally wounded, "Don't give up the ship!"

Not only was our navy successful on the ocean, but on the lakes as well. Capt. Oliver Hazard Perry built a little fleet on the shores of Lake Erie, and after a fight with the British fleet announced his victory in these words: "We have met the enemy and they are ours: two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." Perry's victory ended the war in the Northwest, and Captain McDonough's victory on Lake Champlain was the last contest along the northern boundary.

In December, 1814, the treaty of Ghent was signed and the last war with Great Britain came to an end.

This war with Great Britain encouraged Algiers and the Barbary States to make war again upon our vessels in the Mediterranean. Commodore Decatur was sent in 1815 with



PERRY TRANSFERRING HIS FLAG AT THE BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE.
(From a Photograph of the Painting in the Capitol at Washington.)

a fleet to demand satisfaction. The frightened Algerines promptly signed a treaty, and promised to pay for the ships which they had captured and to stop their privateering. Decatur sailed away to Tripoli and Tunis, and those powers agreed to the same terms. Since this expedition of Commodore Decatur to the Barbary States, we have had no further trouble from those pirates.

Baltimore toasted Decatur with these words: "Renowned for his action; beloved for his virtues." He received a sword from Congress for burning the *Philadelphia*; another for the attacks on Tripoli; a medal for the capture of the *Macedonian*; from the city of New York a box containing the freedom of the city; the medal of the Order of Cincinnati; a sword from Pennsylvania, another from Philadelphia, and a third from Virginia; and both the cities of Baltimore and Philadelphia sent him services of plate for closing the Algerine war. The American people are not ungrateful.

Explain the cause of the war with Tripoli.

Tell the story of the burning of the *Philadelphia*; of the rescue of the "man overboard"; of the boy, Jack Creamer.

Describe Decatur's early life; the battle with the *Macedonian*; the conquest of the Barbary States.

Give accounts of some of the naval commanders in the War of 1812.

Why do we call Tripolitans pirates? Why was it better to burn the *Philadelphia* than to capture it? What is a midshipman? Which required the more bravery, to burn the *Philadelphia* or to rescue the drowning man? Why did Jack Creamer suppose that there would be prize-money that he might share? Why did Decatur say that Jack's proposed use of his money was "noble"? What effect did the naval War of 1812 have upon Great Britain?



CHAPTER XXVI

Andrew Jackson

1767-1845

IN the Revolutionary War, after the surrender of General Lincoln at Charleston, the whole of South Carolina was overrun by the British army. Among those captured on one of these raids was a small boy, thirteen years old. He was carried prisoner to Camden, and nearly starved. While in Camden a British officer, with a very imperious tone, ordered the boy to clean his boots, which were covered with mud.

"Here, boy! You young rebel, what are you doing there? Take these boots and clean them, and be quick about it, too!"

The boy looked up at him and said:

"Sir, I won't do it. I am a prisoner of war and expect proper treatment from you, sir."

The enraged officer drew his sword and aimed a blow at the boy's head, which would doubtless have killed him on the spot had he not thrown up his left arm to protect himself. As it was, he received a severe cut on the arm, the mark of which he carried to the day of his death.

His brother, for a similar offence, received a deep cut upon the head, from the effect of which he died a few days later. Some weeks afterward, his mother, worn out by grief,

anxiety, and need, yielded up her life. His father had died years before. He was thus left an orphan with no relatives, no human being in the wide world with whom he could claim a near relationship. He was confined to his bed by sickness and the sufferings he had undergone while a prisoner in the hands of the British, and then, to cap the climax, he took the small-pox, which wellnigh ended his sorrows and his life.

But from all these troubles, trials, and afflictions he rallied, and became one of the most notable leaders in military and political affairs that this country has ever produced.

This boy, first brought to our attention in the Southern campaign of the American Revolution, afterward became famous in the Creek War, in the War of 1812 with England, in the Seminole War in Florida, and was twice elected President of the United States. He held this high office for eight years, at a time of great party strife, when measures of the utmost importance were before the country. This boy was Andrew Jackson.



BRITISH OFFICER ORDERING YOUNG JACKSON TO CLEAN HIS BOOTS.

Two years before he was born, his father and mother had come to this country from the north of Ireland and had set-

tled near the boundary line between North and South Carolina. Early left an orphan and obliged to earn his own living, Andrew's opportunities to attend school were very limited. He learned to read, to write after a fashion, and to figure a little. In all his life he was never able to write good English.

As we have seen, his career as a fighter began early. He was a firm patriot. He never liked the British, and after that blow from the officer's sword his hatred of the government of England was always kept alive and burning brightly.

What sort of a youth must we suppose Andrew Jackson was up to this time? He was strong, he had health, he was active, but he had no great ambition to rise. He was described as rollicking, noisy, and mischievous. But his boyish pranks were soon laid aside for the great deeds he wished to perform.

When just of age, Andrew moved into the territory of Tennessee. He had previously studied law, and in this new country he soon had plenty of business. The rough settlers of the frontier usually prefer to settle their disputes with their fists, or with knives or firearms. They are too hasty to be willing to wait for the slow decisions of courts of justice. But when life becomes a little quieter in such regions, the pioneers are more willing that their disputes should be settled in accordance with the law. Then the lawyer, if he is popular among the rude frontiersmen, finds his hands full; Andrew Jackson was popular.

Tennessee was admitted into the Union as a State. Jackson was elected to Congress, first as a representative and then as a senator. Soon he was appointed judge of the Supreme Court of Tennessee. After six years as judge he resigned in order to attend to his private business. He had fallen into debt, but after a time he paid all that he owed.

He had a clear head for business, and he successfully managed his large plantation. At the same time he became noted for his fair and honorable dealings with all men.

After the war with England broke out (1812), Jackson was ordered to Natchez with two thousand men. He went South in high spirits, intending to plant the flag upon the ramparts at Mobile, Pensacola, and St. Augustine; for he had long desired that Florida should be a part of the United States.

But soon after his arrival at Natchez he was ordered to disband his troops. Jackson was angry at this order, because it prevented his attacking Florida. He also felt that it was wrong, because it left the soldiers at Natchez; this town was many miles from their starting-point, and the men had no money to carry them home. He refused to obey the order and marched the troops back in a body.

During this march he became the idol of his men, and his determined will and strength of character brought to him the nickname of "Old Hickory." From this time onward through his whole life his friends and admirers called him by that name, and gloried in it.

While the war was going on, the Western Indians arose in their might, determined to drive back all the white men who had crossed the mountains. The Creek Indians, one thousand strong, captured Fort Mimms in Alabama, and massacred more than five hundred men, women, and children.

Jackson now took the field again at the head of twenty-five hundred men. His difficulties and dangers were great. Provisions were lacking; in that new country it was difficult to hold privates to strict military obedience, and quarrels between the generals prevented the necessary united action. Jackson, however, here showed that he had great ability as a general; he was always alert and watchful; he never lacked

patience; and he proved that he knew how to lead men and obtain from them faithful obedience.

He soon gained a decisive victory over the Indians in a great battle at Horse-Shoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River, and the strength of the Creek Nation was broken.

This campaign of Jackson's marks the downfall of Indian power in that section of the country. It also had a decided



GENERAL JACKSON AT THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

effect upon our war with Great Britain, since up to this time the English had received much assistance from the Indians. Jackson was now made major-general in the regular army.

At Mobile and Pensacola he defeated the British and drove them entirely out of Florida. They determined to capture New Orleans, in order to make a permanent conquest of the whole lower Mississippi Valley.

Jackson consequently brought his entire force to New Orleans, and soon fought one of the most notable battles of the whole war.

Sir Edward Pakenham, in command of the British forces, tried to overwhelm Jackson and his army by a direct attack. In less than an hour the British were in full retreat, leaving twenty-six hundred men killed and wounded on the field, while the American loss was only twenty-one killed and wounded. Seldom, if ever, in the history of the world has a land battle been fought where one side lost so many and the other side so few in proportion.

It was the most complete defeat the British army had ever experienced. Our other land battles in this war had not been very favorable to us, but this great victory fully restored the reputation of the American armies.

Until now General Jackson had not been widely and popularly known throughout the whole country. Many asked the questions, "Who is this great man? To what State does he belong?"

From this time until the day of his death he occupied the most prominent place in the popular mind. During Monroe's second term as President of the United States (1821-1825), Jackson began to be talked of for President. When he first heard of the suggestion he was thunderstruck. He knew himself to be a rough, uneducated, military man, with little knowledge of state affairs. At first he ridiculed the idea.

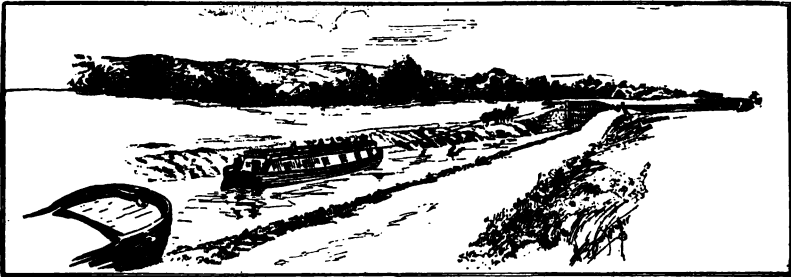
"Do you suppose," said he, "that I am such a fool as to think myself fit to be President of the United States? No, sir! I know what I am fit for. I can command a body of men in a rough way, but I am not fit to be President."

Jackson really had less personal ambition than many men,

but he was very popular, and without doubt flattery went far to influence him to accept the nomination.

But he was defeated and John Quincy Adams was elected President. From this time onward Jackson devoted himself to politics; and in the next campaign he was elected President by a large majority, and John C. Calhoun was made Vice-President.

Jackson was so liked that he was reëlected. Neverthe-



TRAVELING BY CANAL BOAT IN JACKSON'S TIME.

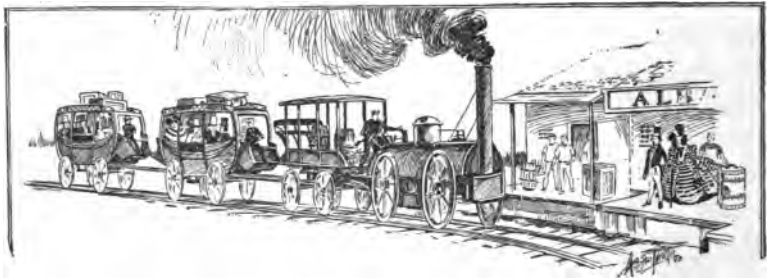
less, during the eight years that he was President (1829-1837) he had a stormy time.

Among the many important events during his Presidency was the trouble with South Carolina. Then, as now, people were divided in their opinions concerning the tariff. The politicians of South Carolina did not like a tariff bill which the Congress of the United States had passed. Therefore a convention was held in that State which voted that the tariff law should be "null and void" in South Carolina. By this was meant that they would not allow the United States government to collect the import taxes upon goods entering that State.

This act was called nullification. It really declared that

the laws of the United States could not be enforced in South Carolina unless that State was willing. It made the State greater than the United States.

Jackson immediately sent Lieutenant Farragut with a naval force to Charleston Harbor, and ordered General Scott to have troops in readiness to enter South Carolina if necessary. Jackson believed that a State had no right to "nullify" a law of the United States, and that such action was contrary



THE EARLY RAILWAY TRAIN.

to the Constitution and, if permitted to become a precedent, would finally destroy the nation.

A bill to modify the tariff, sometimes called the "Clay Compromise Tariff Bill," passed Congress and was accepted by the nullifiers, and South Carolina remained in the Union. Thirty years afterward South Carolina went a little further, and declared her right to withdraw altogether from the Union. That last act was followed by a four years' war (the Civil War), which finally determined the question; now the United States is acknowledged by everybody to be a nation, and every State is subordinate to the national power.

The two terms during which Jackson was President form a remarkable period in the history of the country. Besides the great political events of these years, important changes

in daily life were taking place. Steam railroads were begun, anthracite coal was brought into use, friction matches were invented, and the reaping machine was patented.

At the end of this time Jackson retired to private life, much more popular even than when he became President. He spent the remaining eight years of his life on his plantation, "The Hermitage," near Nashville, Tennessee.

Jackson died at the age of seventy-eight, after having held more power than any other American had ever possessed, and after having succeeded in every great undertaking which he attempted. The name of Andrew Jackson is to-day classed with those of George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, and Thomas Jefferson in the hearts of the American people.

Give an account of the patriotic prisoner of war.

Tell the story of Jackson's education; of his early character; of his campaigns against Florida, against the Creeks, against the British.

Give an account of Jackson: as a candidate for the Presidency; as President.

Had the British officer a right to order Andrew to black his boots? Can you understand why Jackson was popular with the pioneers of Tennessee? Could not Judge Jackson have properly attended to his private business and still remained a judge? Why was Jackson called "Old Hickory"? Why was the obedience of privates harder to obtain in the new country than in longer-settled regions?



CHAPTER XXVII

Calhoun—Clay—Webster

1782-1850

1781-1852

1782-1852

FOR twenty years after Washington became President, the development of this country was slow. From 1810 to the middle of the century its growth was far more rapid.

During these years great questions were argued in Congress. At one time it was the tariff; at another, the National Bank; now, it would be the question of internal improvement at the national expense; then, would appear important questions relating to the development of our Western territory, or the annexation of Texas, or the war with Mexico. During this time, also, slavery became one of the most important questions before the national government.

At the beginning of our history as a nation, thirteen colonies, separate from each other, had joined together to secure by their united efforts their independence from Great Britain. Their union, however, was weak, and jealousy existed between the Northern and the Southern States, and between the larger and the smaller States. When the Constitution was

framed it largely increased the national power, but the people were afraid of any strong, centralized authority over them, which might some time take away their liberties.

Hence arose two parties in the nation. One party favored a strong, central, national government; the other party was called "the State Rights Party," and its extreme advocates held that each State was superior to the nation, that a State could "nullify" or repudiate acts of Congress, or, in an extreme case, could legally withdraw from the Union.

The National Party, on the other hand, scouted the idea that a part was greater than a whole, that the nation was only a league of States, and it held that the United States of America was a Nation, made up by a union of all the States for national purposes; that self-preservation is the first law of nations as well as of individuals, and that no one State could override in any way the national government.

During this whole period of forty years, three men, whose ancestors came from three foreign countries, and who themselves represented three diverse sections of this country, the Northeast, the Southeast, and the Central-west, were the leaders in the discussion of all these important questions at Washington.

The life of John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, covered the period from 1782 to 1850. He was of Irish descent. Henry Clay was born one year earlier and died two years later. He was of English parentage, and throughout most of his life he represented Kentucky. Daniel Webster was born the same year as Calhoun, and died in the same year with Clay. He was of Scotch extraction.

When Calhoun first entered Congress we were on the eve of a war with Great Britain. From that time he took a foremost place in the discussion of the questions which continued

to agitate the country. In his earlier years he favored the National Bank, a protective tariff, and a system of national roads and canals. He was not always consistent, but he explained his course by saying that remedies proper for one condition of things might be improper for other conditions.

During Jackson's administration he quarreled with the President and soon appeared as the champion of State rights, that is, State supremacy over the nation, and defended the principle of nullification.

This means that he held that a State had a constitutional right to nullify and make void an act of Congress so far as that State was concerned. A convention of delegates in South Carolina in the year 1832 passed an ordinance nullifying the tariff laws.

A tariff law, it should be explained, is an act of Congress imposing a tax on merchandise imported into our country. This tariff may be designed only to raise a revenue for the government, or it may be intended to protect American industries. In the former case it is a "revenue tariff," in the latter case it is called a "protective tariff."

South Carolina's attempt to nullify the national tariff law caused great excitement.

At a public dinner on Jefferson's birthday, after several regular toasts had been given favoring nullification, Jackson suddenly arose with a volunteer toast: "Our Federal Union, it must be preserved." Calhoun immediately replied with a toast and a speech in behalf of "Liberty, dearer than the Union." But President Jackson took strong ground against the nullifiers.

Calhoun was Vice-President. He resigned that office, and was immediately elected to the Senate by his State. On the floor of the Senate he defended his State and its pol-

icy, but the President threatened to hang the nullifiers as high as Haman if they did not recede from their position. Congress finally passed a new tariff act more favorable to the South, and South Carolina withdrew its opposition to the collection of the tariff duties in the ports of that State.

That ended the controversy for that time, but for years before and after this date, Calhoun persistently taught the people of the South that the Union was merely a compact between the States, which could be broken at pleasure by any one of them. Hence, it came to pass that this doctrine, which was called the "Right of Secession," continually gained adherents in the South. In the North, the right of secession and the right to nullify a law of Congress found very few adherents, while, as the years passed by, the people of the Southern States came more and more generally to believe in that doctrine.

Mr. Calhoun's active life for about forty years was passed in the national House of Representatives, in the United States Senate, as a member of the President's Cabinet, and as Vice-President of the United States.

Henry Clay, the second of this great trio of statesmen, was born in Virginia, early left an orphan, and obliged to earn his own living from the age of fourteen years. He had no opportunity for a collegiate education, but studied law, and was admitted to the bar at the early age of twenty. He then removed to Lexington, Kentucky, and from that time onward for nearly half a century till his death he was the idol of his adopted State, his lifelong home.

His political career began before he was twenty-one. He was appointed to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate before he had reached thirty years,* and at the expiration of

* A violation of the Constitution, unnoticed at the time.

his term the people of Kentucky sent him to the House of Representatives, of which he was immediately elected speaker.

Clay's public life, like that of Calhoun, covered a period of more than forty years, and throughout its whole extent his career was brilliant in the extreme. He served his country as representative, as senator, and as Secretary of State under President John Quincy Adams.

After his service in the Cabinet was ended, he again entered the Senate, of which he remained a member most of the

time until his death. He was reëlected senator in 1851, took his seat in December of that year, but, owing to failing health, he appeared in the Senate only once during the winter. He died June 29th, 1852, and was buried in the cemetery at Lexington, where a monument, consisting of a tall cylindrical column surmounted by a statue, stands over his tomb.



CLAY FORGETTING HIS POETRY.

quote poetry. The story is told that on one occasion, when he was to deliver an address at a barbecue, he determined to overcome this inability. He had committed to memory that famous passage from Sir Walter Scott:

"Breathes there the man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,

This is my own, my native land!
 Whose heart hath ne'er within him burn'd
 As home his footsteps he hath turn'd
 From wandering on a foreign strand?
 If such there breathe, go, mark him well!
 For him no minstrel raptures swell;
 High though his titles, proud his name,
 Boundless his wealth as wish can claim,—
 Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
 The wretch, concentered all in self,
 Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
 And, doubly dying, shall go down
 To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
 Unwept, unhonor'd, and unsung."

This was to be the opening of his speech. He therefore began:

"Mr. President and fellow-citizens:

'Breathes there the man with soul so dead'——"

but he could not recall the next line. He therefore began again:

"Mr. President and fellow-citizens:

'Breathes there the man with soul so dead'——"

but the next line was as obdurate as before. It would not show itself. He repeated for the third time, and still the second line would not come to his memory. He therefore was obliged to omit the poetry and go on with what he had planned should follow it.

Calhoun belonged to the Democratic party. Clay, after the formation of the Whig party, was a firm adherent to its principles.

Clay figured prominently in many great questions which came before Congress during that long period when he was a member either of one house or the other. He took an im-

portant part in the national legislation connected with the admission of the State of Missouri, 1819-21. The action of Congress at that time created the first great political excitement over slavery throughout the country. After long and bitter discussion of the whole subject, Mr. Clay moved that it be referred to a special committee. This motion prevailed and he was appointed chairman of that committee. There was a joint committee of Senate and House, and these two unitedly reported to both houses a resolution admitting Missouri as a slave State, Maine as a free State, with a provision forever prohibiting slavery in all of that territory which we had purchased of France, called the Province of Louisiana, which lay north of 36° 30', except Missouri.

This was called the Missouri Compromise, and was largely brought about by the influence of Henry Clay. His efforts in this matter gave him the name of "The Great Pacificator."

Clay was the Whig candidate for President in 1844, but was defeated on account of his position upon the question of the annexation of Texas. At the close of the Mexican War, Clay strongly opposed acquiring from Mexico any additional territory.

In 1850, when California asked to be admitted as a State with a constitution which prohibited slavery, and the question arose whether slavery should be admitted into New Mexico and Utah or excluded therefrom, great excitement was created both in Congress and among the people. Leading men of the South threatened a dissolution of the Union. It was a critical period, and at this time Clay again introduced into the Senate a new scheme of compromise. This included the admission of California as a free State; territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah, without any restriction as to slavery; a settlement of the boundary line between

Texas and New Mexico, nearly as it stands to-day; an indemnity of ten million dollars to be paid to Texas for her claims to this part of New Mexico; the prohibition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia, but not the abolition of slavery itself in this District; and finally a more stringent fugitive slave law.

This was the famous Clay Compromise of 1850. It proved satisfactory neither to the North nor to the South, and at the end of another ten years the drift of events brought the final collision between the slave States and the national government.

The third of this illustrious trio is Daniel Webster. His father was one of the first pioneer settlers in central New Hampshire. By the strictest economy and with great sacrifices he succeeded in giving his son Daniel a collegiate education. Calhoun graduated at Yale College and Webster at Dartmouth.

It is related that after Webster graduated from college, and when his father was judge, the father wished Daniel to become clerk of the court. It was a position he could have if he desired it. The father made known his request to Daniel, but the young man did not respond. In the evening the elder Webster laid out the whole matter before his son, emphasizing the advantages that would accrue from the position, and finally waited for an answer. After a brief silence, the story goes, Daniel said to his father: "Father, I think I will not accept this position. I propose to make the laws, not to record them."

"Well, well!" says the old man, "your mother always said that you would make something or nothing, and I guess she was about right."

Webster taught school, studied law, was admitted to the bar, was sent to Congress from New Hampshire, and then moved to Boston. He represented Massachusetts at Wash-



WEBSTER MAKING HIS REPLY TO HAYNE IN THE SENATE.

ington either in the House or the Senate most of the time for thirty years. He was Secretary of State under Harrison and Tyler, and while in this position he negotiated with Great Britain a very important treaty, fixing the boundaries between the United States and the British possessions from the coast on the east of Maine through the Great Lakes and westward to the summit of the Rocky Mountains. This is known as the Webster-Ashburton Treaty.

Before South Carolina had undertaken to nullify the tariff laws, Webster had taken a strong position against sectionalism and in favor of the Union. In 1830, Mr. Hayne, a senator from South Carolina, strenuously opposed the system of protective tariffs, asserting that it was unconstitutional.

This led to a great debate between Hayne and Webster, probably the most famous discussion that ever took place upon the floor of the United States Senate. Hayne strongly opposed the existing tariff law and insisted upon the supremacy of the States, holding that each State had the right to nullify any act of Congress which it considered unconstitutional.

Hayne was a brilliant orator, and his attack upon New England was extremely severe. Mr. Webster replied in a speech which occupied two days. This speech was considered a strong argument against the right of nullification, against State sovereignty, and in favor of the Union. Among the closing sentences of this famous speech are the following:

“When my eyes shall be turned to behold, for the last time, the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union; on States dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feuds, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood! . . . but may I see our flag with not a stripe erased or polluted, nor a single star obscured; . . . but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that sentiment, dear to every true American heart—*Liberty AND Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!*”

The effect of this speech has been very great upon the destiny of our country. It was a masterly performance, and perhaps showed greater power in the speaker than any other address which he ever made. President Jackson had soon to contend with nullification as a fact, and, although the main question was not settled, the collision between the State and the Federal governments was postponed.

Webster has been called “The Expounder of the Constitu-

tion." One of his speeches in the Senate was entitled "The Constitution Not a Compact between Sovereign States."

In addition to the great speeches made by Mr. Webster in Congress, he delivered many famous addresses elsewhere. His plea in the Dartmouth College case before the Supreme Court of the United States as early as 1818 had stamped him as a great constitutional lawyer. A clause in the United States Constitution says that no State shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts. The charter of Dartmouth College, Webster argued, was in the nature of a contract, and the legislature of the State could not set aside that contract. This was Webster's argument. The United States Supreme Court decided that the action of the State legislature, which had reorganized the college and brought into existence a new board of trustees, was in the nature of impairing the obligation of a contract, and therefore was unconstitutional. The court therefore set aside that action, reaffirmed the old charter, and reinstated the old board of trustees.

The effect of this decision about Dartmouth College went far toward limiting the idea of State sovereignty and magnifying the jurisdiction of the Federal Supreme Court, in the eyes of the people of the whole country.

Mr. Webster's two orations at Bunker Hill—the first, June 17th, 1825, at the laying of the cornerstone of the monument, and the second, June 17th, 1843, at the dedication of the monument—are masterly efforts, and they alone would have placed their author in the front rank of modern orators. Another famous oration of Mr. Webster's was delivered at Plymouth, December 22d, 1820, the two hundredth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims. It was a grand occasion, and the wonderful speech was equal to the occasion.

Mr. Calhoun was a great statesman, who in his day advocated and represented the South Carolina doctrine of nullification and secession. Mr. Clay ranked equally high as a statesman and legislator, and his influence was that of a compromiser; by his compromises he was able to put off to a future day the conflict which, after all, was inevitable, and which came in the Civil War of 1861-65. Mr. Webster was the Unionist, and his influence was great in making the people of the nation revere the Constitution and idolize the Union.

The Civil War swept away Calhoun's doctrine, and established the fact that the United States is a Nation and not a league of States. The influence of Mr. Clay was great at the time his gigantic efforts were made, but their effect was only to postpone the evil day. The conflict between the two doctrines of national supremacy and State sovereignty had to come. Mr. Webster threw his influence in favor of the Union as the greatest good, the only sure preserver of the liberties, and promoter of the progress of the people of this republic. The Union has been preserved, the national power has been strengthened, and the nation to-day is more prosperous, and perhaps has less difficulties threatening its future than during the active period of these three great statesmen.

Describe Clay's Missouri Compromise; his Compromise of 1850.

Give an account of the speeches of Hayne and Webster.

Tell the story of Calhoun and Nullification.

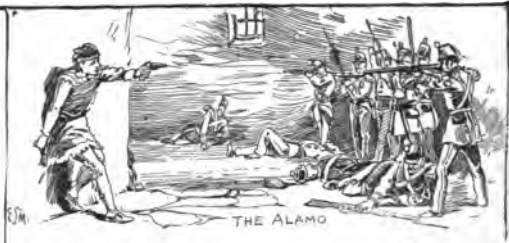
Describe the Dartmouth College Case.

Write accounts of John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, and Daniel Webster. Give the facts as in this chapter, writing of each man separately.

We read in this chapter of three sections of the country; which section did each of these three men represent? In what way would the Missouri Compromise please the upholders of slavery? How would it please the opponents of slavery? In what way did the decision in the Dartmouth College Case influence public opinion concerning "State Supremacy"? Have we any great orators to-day?



SAMUEL HOUSTON



CHAPTER XXVIII

Samuel Houston

1793-1863

WHEN the treaty of peace was signed with Great Britain in 1783, the number of States in the Union was thirteen.

When Andrew Jackson was President, fifty years later, it was twenty-four. The new States had been admitted one by one: Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri.

Twelve of these twenty-four States were free, and in twelve negro slavery was permitted. The free States formed the northern portion of the country, and the slave States the southern. The boundary between them was Mason and Dixon's line (between Pennsylvania and Maryland), and the Ohio River. West of the Mississippi River Missouri allowed slavery; but it was forbidden west and north of that State.

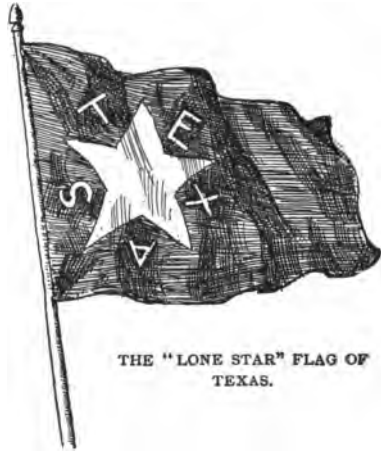
If we look at a map of the United States as it was then, we shall find that the free States had a large region north and west of them into which their people could move and form more States. On the other hand, the slave States had but little western territory between them and the Spanish country or Mexico.

The people in the South, if they moved west, must go

across the border into Texas, the nearest of the Mexican provinces. This they did in great numbers, until the population in Texas was more than half made up of people from the United States.

Among these settlers was Samuel Houston. He was nearly forty years of age when he moved into Texas, intending to find some means by which he could bring that province into the United States. He was a native of Virginia, but in early boyhood had gone to Tennessee.

Before he was of age he entered the army, and quickly rose, through the various grades, from the rank of a private to that of lieutenant. Leaving the army, young Houston studied law, entered politics, was sent to Congress, and was chosen governor of Tennessee.



THE "LONE STAR" FLAG OF
TEXAS.

Houston had not been long in Texas before he began to make himself known. The new settlers turned to him at once as the man best fitted to lead them. He was elected general of the Texan army. He urged the calling of a convention, which, when it met, issued a declaration of independence.

Mexico was no more willing to lose Texas than England had been willing to permit the United States to be free and independent. Accordingly it began preparations to compel Texas to remain a Mexican province.

A strong Mexican army under Gen. Santa Anna in-

vaded Texas. The first important battle was an assault on the Alamo, a fort at San Antonio. Here a small body of Texan soldiers was attacked by a force of ten times their number. The siege lasted for nearly a month, until the Texans were all killed but six. Among the killed were David Crockett and General Bowie, who invented the "bowie-knife." The six who finally surrendered were killed by the Mexicans.

"Remember the Alamo!" became the war-cry of the Texans in their struggle for independence.

Finally, Houston fought a battle with Santa Anna and defeated him. In this engagement the Texan army numbered less than half the Mexican force, but within an hour the Mexicans were totally routed, losing six hundred and thirty killed and seven hundred and thirty prisoners, including Gen. Santa Anna himself.

The independence of Texas was now certain, though it was not acknowledged by Mexico. A government was established and Houston was elected President. The Republic of Texas ("The Lone Star Republic") at once sought admission into the Union. This was strongly opposed in the Congress of the United States. Finally, after waiting eight years, an act was passed annexing Texas (1845).

Thus Texas became the twenty-eighth member of the Union,—Arkansas, Michigan, and Florida having been previously admitted.

Now there were fifteen slave and thirteen free States, but Texas was the last to be admitted with a provision permitting slavery.

A dispute arose about the boundary between Texas and Mexico. A large force of the United States army, under Gen. Zachary Taylor, entered the disputed territory and was

soon met by a Mexican army, which had also crossed the boundary. A fight took place, and a war, called the War with Mexico, followed. General Taylor won several victories in northern Mexico, and a year later Gen. Winfield Scott captured the city of Mexico.

A treaty of peace between the two countries was made



GENERAL SCOTT BEFORE THE CITY OF MEXICO.

(1848), by which Mexico yielded the boundary which Texas claimed; and by this treaty also the United States purchased the region north of the present Mexico, between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. This territory was called California and New Mexico. Out of it three States and two Territories have since been made, besides parts of other States. By the addition of Texas and the Mexican Cession,

a region larger than the original United States was added to the country.

Now we had a new Western region from which States could be made, but no slave State was ever after this admitted to the Union. The first part of this new country to



GOLD DISCOVERED IN CALIFORNIA.

ask for admission was California, which framed a constitution prohibiting slavery. This was but two years after the Mexican treaty; then the province of California had a very small population.

California's remarkable growth was due to the discovery of something which almost everybody desires. Columbus sought for it when he made his first voyage; Cabot

thought of it when he sailed across the ocean; De Soto and thousands of other Spaniards made great exertions to find it; John Smith explored the interior of Virginia, seeking it. At last, when California had been bought by the United States, it was found in great quantities.

Captain Sutter, a Swiss immigrant, had obtained land in the Mexican province of California, and had built a fort

where the city of Sacramento now stands. He needed lumber for his new plantation, and therefore sent one of his men, named Marshall, to build a saw-mill a few miles up the American River. Marshall built a dam across the river, and a trench to carry the water to the mill. He noticed one day that there were shining specks lying at the bottom of the trench. He began to think that they might be gold.

Saying nothing about what he had found, Marshall took the first opportunity to go down to Sutter's fort and have a talk with him. The two men began to examine the shining lumps. They found them to be heavy—so is gold. They were pounded into thin sheets—gold can be hammered. Acid would not eat them—it will eat almost everything but gold. The men decided that the lumps were gold and that they would say nothing about it.

But the great secret could not be kept. The news flew. Everybody seemed to become crazy for gold. Business was neglected; and all California rushed for the gold-fields.

Then the news crossed the mountains and the whole country was excited. From all the States, especially those of the North, men hastened to the "El Dorado." Some went by ship around South America; but this was too long a route for many. Others went by water to the Isthmus of Panama, and, crossing this, again took sail; but many died of sickness caused by the malaria of the Isthmus. Most tried the overland route across the plains and over the mountains in emigrant trains. This was a terrible trip; many perished and more turned back discouraged. This was in the year 1849, and these pioneers have been called "Forty-niners."

The gold was there, however, and vast sums were obtained, though at great expense of money and life. Silver was also found in large quantities.

But after all, though the precious metals are still mined in California, we can see to-day that neither gold nor silver makes the Pacific Coast so valuable as do her great agricultural products. Grain and fruit are worth more to human beings than all the gold and jewels in the world.

California was admitted as a free State, because the greater part of her people were opposed to slavery. The hopes of the slavery leaders were in vain. Ten years later the South voted to withdraw from the Union and have a country entirely composed of slave States. Among them was Texas. The governor of Texas at the time (1861) was Samuel Houston himself. This maker of a State, who had spent much of his life in the effort to bring Texas into the United States, could not bear to have his beloved land leave the Union.

He refused to secede; and was deprived of his office as governor. He never again entered public life, though he finally accepted the movement, being unwilling to oppose the people of his section. A year or two later he died, still disappointed because his State had left the Union.

When the Civil War ended, all the seceding States were readmitted, and no State is more loyal than Texas, the largest in the Union.

Give an account of the growth of the country.

Tell the story of Houston, as a United States soldier; as a politician; as a Texan.

Describe the War for Texan Independence; the War with Mexico.

Give accounts of Marshall's discovery; of the "Forty-niners."

State what Houston thought of the secession of Texas.

Why did the slavery leaders desire more Southwestern territory? Why did the Texans cry, "Remember the Alamo"? Why was there opposition to the annexation of Texas? Was it made by the Northern or the Southern members of Congress, do you think? What was the cause of the War with Mexico? Why did California choose a free constitution? Why do people desire gold so much?



OUR COUNTRY'S GROWTH FROM 1845 TO 1848.



CHAPTER XXIX

Marcus Whitman

1802-1847

WHEN we bought California from Mexico it gave us more than one thousand miles of sea-coast on the Pacific, but we already had six hundred miles of coast farther north.

That country was called Oregon, and this is the way we obtained possession of it.

Long before the year 1800, Captain Gray, of Boston, discovered the mouth of a great river, and sailed his vessel over the bar at its entrance and fifty or sixty miles up the river. Here he landed, traded with the natives, and obtained fresh water for his vessel. He took possession of the country in the name of the United States, and named the river after his ship, the Columbia.

Some years later, an expedition was sent out by President Jefferson to explore the country, under command of Captains Lewis and Clark. They crossed the Rocky Mountains and went down the Columbia River to its mouth, where they passed the winter and returned the next summer. This exploring expedition gave us another claim to the country.

Afterward, a permanent settlement was made at Astoria, near the mouth of the Columbia River. This settlement was

made by John Jacob Astor for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade with Indians of that section.

President Monroe purchased Florida from Spain, and in the treaty of purchase the boundary between the United States and the Spanish provinces was defined. Between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, the line ran along latitude 42°. South of that line were the Spanish provinces, and to the country north of that line Spain yielded to us her claims.

England, however, had laid claim to this territory and hence a dispute arose between us and the British government as to which should have the Oregon country. Time passed on, and that question was not decided for many years.



THE OLD "OREGON COUNTRY."

Finally, American missionaries were sent out to the Oregon country to teach the Indians the Christian religion. Following in the train of the missionaries were many settlers. A British company bought the fur business which had been established at Astoria, so that many Canadians and other subjects of Great Britain also settled in that region.

Among the American missionaries to the Indians was Dr. Marcus Whitman, a native of the State of New York, not a clergyman but a physician. With Whitman and his wife went Rev. Mr. Spaulding and his wife. Mrs. Whitman and Mrs. Spaulding were the first white women to cross the Rocky Mountains.

After living there six years, Whitman became satisfied that the English people in the fur trade were laying plans to

secure that territory for Great Britain and themselves. He therefore made a most perilous journey on horseback from Oregon to the city of Washington and told the President, his Cabinet, and members of Congress what a valuable country Oregon was, and urged our government not to consent to part with it.

Then, in the spring following, he returned to Oregon with a large company of emigrants, who settled in the valley of the Columbia. Others followed in large numbers so that the Americans had a majority of the people in that region.

This "ride for Oregon" by Dr. Whitman was a most remarkable one, and has become famous. He consulted with his brother missionaries at a meeting held at his station on the Walla Walla River, in the present State of Washington. They agreed that he should go East, and gave him letters to carry.

Five days later he started on his long and dangerous journey with but a single companion. In eleven days he reached Fort Hall, in southeastern Idaho, having covered a distance of four hundred miles.

After resting a day or two and taking a guide, he pushed forward, not directly east through the South Pass, because in that section the snows were very deep and two tribes of Indians were at war with each other. He therefore followed an old Spanish trail, southeasterly through the corner of Utah, across Wyoming and Colorado to Santa Fé, New Mexico. This route added about a thousand miles to the length of the journey.

Throughout this section his sufferings were severe. It required a very brave man with great endurance to perform such a trip at that early day through that barren country, on horseback, in the dead of winter. He must cross wide and

deep rivers, in some cases by fording and sometimes by swimming, while his path lay over almost impassable mountains, hardly yet ever traversed by man.

When they reached the Grand River they found it about a hundred and fifty or two hundred yards wide, frozen over about one-third the way across, on each side, and in the centre a rapid, angry stream of deep water. The guide told them that it would be very dangerous to cross there.

But Dr. Whitman was not the man to be stopped by anything short of an impossibility. He rode out on the ice to its edge, and, although the weather was intensely cold, he called upon his companions to push off his horse into the stream. They did so, and down they went, completely under the water, horse and



"THE RIDE FOR OREGON."

rider, but soon came up, and, after buffeting the rapid, foaming current, reached the ice on the opposite shore, a long way down the stream.

He leaped from his horse upon the ice and soon had the noble animal by his side. The other men forced in the pack animals, followed his example, and were soon drying their frozen clothing by a comfortable fire.

At another time, near the headwaters of the Arkansas River, after traveling all day in a terrible storm, they reached a small river for camp, but without a stick of wood anywhere to be had except on the other side of the stream,

which was covered with ice too thin to support a man erect.

The storm cleared away, and the night bid fair to be intensely cold; besides they must have fires to prepare their food. The doctor took his axe in one hand and a willow stick in the other, laid himself upon the thin ice, and, spreading his legs and arms, worked himself over on his breast, boy fashion, cut his wood, slid it over, and returned in the same way.

Frozen, almost starved, thoroughly worn out, he rested several days at Fort Taos and then at Santa Fé in New Mexico. He had now really got around the mountains, and, changing his course to the northeast, pushed forward to Fort Bent, on the Arkansas River. It was late in January, but here he overtook a company of mountaineers and traveled with them to St. Louis.

From there he pushed on to Washington, which place he reached the 3d of March, 1843. John Tyler was President and Daniel Webster was Secretary of State. He told them what a valuable country the Oregon region was. The doctor had interviews with senators and members of the House of Representatives, and then hastened to Boston.

From Boston he hurried westward and met the emigrants, who had gathered in large numbers near Westport, Missouri. As soon as the grass was sufficiently grown one party started. A week later the second section moved, the third a week later still, and the fourth division ten days after that.

These four bands, during the summer, successfully crossed the great western plains, pushed up the valley of the Platte River, the North Platte, and the Sweetwater, through the South Pass and so on past Fort Hall, Boisé City, and over the Blue Mountains to the Columbia. This great company

numbered more than eight hundred men, women, and children, with two hundred emigrant wagons, and fifteen hundred head of cattle.

On reaching Oregon they spread themselves out principally in the valley of the Willamette River. Just as the war with Mexico was begun (1846), we made a treaty with Great Britain by which she relinquished to us her claims south of latitude 49°, and we yielded to her the whole region north of that line.

It is painful to be obliged to add that Dr. Whitman, his wife, and eleven others, were massacred by the Indians (in 1847), at his station on the Walla Walla River. Whitman was a man of great endurance, courageous beyond measure, with a noble soul, filled with the loftiest patriotism. The American people should cherish and honor the memory of Marcus Whitman as one of our greatest and most heroic patriots.

For fifty years that great section has been rapidly filling up with industrious and enterprising citizens from the older States, until now it contains more than a million inhabitants and has become noted for its rich soil and healthful climate, which make it one of the finest regions in the whole country. It raises great quantities of wheat, rye, potatoes, and hay,



THE WESTERN SETTLER'S FIRST HOME.

has valuable minerals, and is capable of supplying the world with the best of lumber, of which it has an exhaustless quantity.

Thus we see how, largely through the patriotism, intrepidity, and energy of one man, it has happened that three States, Washington, Oregon, and Idaho, were added to our Union, three stars to our flag, and six members to the American Senate.

Explain each of the claims that the United States had to Oregon.

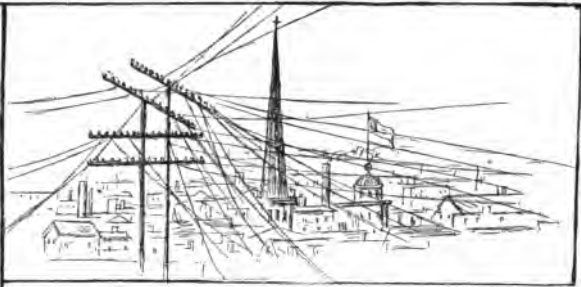
State the reasons for Whitman's eastward journey.

Give some account of that journey.

Give an account of the return trip.

State what the journey did for the United States.

Who discovered Oregon? Who explored Oregon? Who first settled Oregon? Who yielded to the United States her claims to Oregon? Who finally signed a treaty by which the United States fully received Oregon? Whitman went to Washington to tell the President how valuable Oregon was; why did not the President know this?



CHAPTER XXX

Samuel F. B. Morse

1791-1872

FEW inventions have proved of greater use or made greater changes in the life of man than the invention of the magnetic telegraph. It was almost wholly due to the genius and skill of Prof. Samuel F. B. Morse. He not only invented the instrument, but also planned all the details and put it into practical operation.

Professor Morse was the son of the distinguished geographer, Rev. Jedediah Morse, D.D., of Charlestown, Massachusetts. Like the inventor of the steamboat, he became a portrait painter. Like Fulton also, he went to England to study his profession. He worked with the famous Washington Allston.

While there, one day Allston took Morse to the studio of Fulton's friend, the great painter, Benjamin West. Morse was examining a portrait of King George III., when West said, "That is a portrait of the king." "So I observe," replied Morse, "did he sit here for it?" "Yes," said the painter, "and let me tell you a little incident. One day,

while he was sitting for me, a box was handed to him, which contained the American Declaration of Independence."

"And what did the king say?" asked Morse.

"What he said," replied West, "was creditable to his heart. When he saw what the document was, knowing that I was an American, he looked up at me and said, 'Well, if the Americans can be happier under their own government than under mine, I am happy.'"

Morse a few years later was crossing the Atlantic in a packet ship, when, in the early part of the voyage, at the dinner table, frequent discussions arose in regard to electro-magnetism. Dr. Jackson, of Boston, spoke one day of the length of wire in the coil of a magnet. Some one asked the question whether the passage of electricity through the wire was hindered by its length. Jackson replied that it was not. He said that electricity passed instantaneously over any known length of wire.

At this point Professor Morse made this remark: "If the presence of electricity can be made visible in any part of the circuit, I see no reason why intelligence may not be transmitted instantaneously by electricity."

The conversation between others went on, but that one new idea had taken full possession of Professor Morse's whole being. He reviewed in his mind the experiments of his boyhood, his college studies in electricity, his frequent talks with Professor Dana and Professor Renwick. He withdrew from the table and went on deck. The idea followed him through the whole journey.

Professor Morse was already an inventor. He had secured many patents in the United States. He was a man of industry, patience, and faith. He was forty years of age. The magnetic telegraph he must invent.

"If it will go ten miles without stopping," he said, "I can make it go around the globe."

He made the magnet. He fashioned the armature. He applied the lever. He attached the wires to the battery. By making the electricity flow and then by stopping it, the armature was drawn up and dropped. The instrument was made. Success attended its working.

He next set himself to invent an alphabet, consisting of long and short marks. That alphabet is now in almost universal use with the telegraph the world over.

The invention was complete, but many years must pass before it could be put into successful operation. Morse continued his studies of the subject, constantly experimenting, until he had spent all his money and was really penniless. It was the old story of genius contending with poverty. At one time he had a little room in a downtown building in the city of New York, owned by his brothers, where he lived and worked and ate and slept. On one side of the room was his turning lathe and bench, and on the other side a little cot. He lived on crackers and the simplest food, which, with the tea prepared by himself, sustained his life, while he toiled night and day to perfect the instrument which he had invented.

Finally the decisive day came. It was the third day of March, 1843. (This was the very day that Whitman reached Washington.) At midnight Congress would adjourn. A bill was before the Senate for an appropriation of \$30,000 to put in operation a telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore, a distance of forty miles. The bill had passed the House. It was now near midnight. Morse was still waiting in the Senate Chamber. His friends told him it was impossible for the bill to be reached. Morse himself said after-

ward: "This was the turning point in the history of the telegraph. My personal funds were reduced to the fraction of a dollar, and, had the passage of the bill failed from any cause, there would have been little prospect of another attempt on my part to introduce to the world my new invention."

His friends assured him that it was useless to remain in the Senate Chamber. The bill could not possibly be reached. He left the Capitol, retired to his room at the hotel wellnigh broken-hearted.



MORSE'S FIRST NEWS OF HIS SUCCESS.

As he came down to breakfast the next morning, Miss Annie G. Ellsworth, daughter of his friend, the commissioner of patents, met him with a smile upon her face and exclaimed, "I have come to congratulate you, Professor Morse." "For what?"

said Morse; "you had better commiserate me." "Oh, no," she replied, "congratulate you." "For what, pray?" "On the passage of your bill. My father told me that in the last moment of the session the bill was passed without debate or division." Morse promised her that she should dictate the first message to be sent over the first line of telegraph that was opened.

When the line was completed and everything was ready, Professor Morse sent a note to Miss Ellsworth, saying: "Everything is ready, and I am prepared to fulfil my prom-

ise that you should dictate the first dispatch over the wires." An answer was immediately returned, and the words which it contained—

“What hath God wrought,”

were the first words ever sent by electric telegraph from one city to another. Professor Morse afterward said of this message, “It baptized the American telegraph with the name of its author.” Morse was at Washington; his friend, Mr. Alfred Vail, at Baltimore. Morse caused the instrument to tick out the words as given above. Vail received the message and repeated it back again. Then Morse over the wire said, “Stop a few minutes.” Vail replied, “Yes.”

“Have you any news?” “No.” “Mr. Seaton’s respects to you.” “My respects to him.” “What is your time?” “Nine o’clock, twenty-eight minutes.” “What weather have you?” “Cloudy.” “Separate your words more.” “Oil your clockwork.”

The first message was sent May 24th, 1844. Two days afterward the National Democratic Convention assembled in Baltimore to nominate candidates for President and Vice-President. The convention nominated James K. Polk for President. It then nominated Silas Wright for Vice-President.

Mr. Wright was at that time in the Senate. His nomination was telegraphed at once by Mr. Vail at Baltimore to Professor Morse in the old Senate Chamber in the Capitol at Washington. In a few moments the convention was surprised by receiving a message from Mr. Wright, in which he declined the nomination. The president of the convention read the dispatch, but it was not believed. The friends of Mr. Wright said it was a trick by his enemies to make them nominate some one else. The convention adjourned, after

choosing a committee to go to Washington and get Mr. Wright's answer in person. The committee returned the next morning and reported that the telegraph had brought the answer correctly from Mr. Wright.

No better advertisement of the invention could possibly have been planned. Here were leading men from every State in the Union. They were thoroughly convinced of the usefulness of the telegraph.

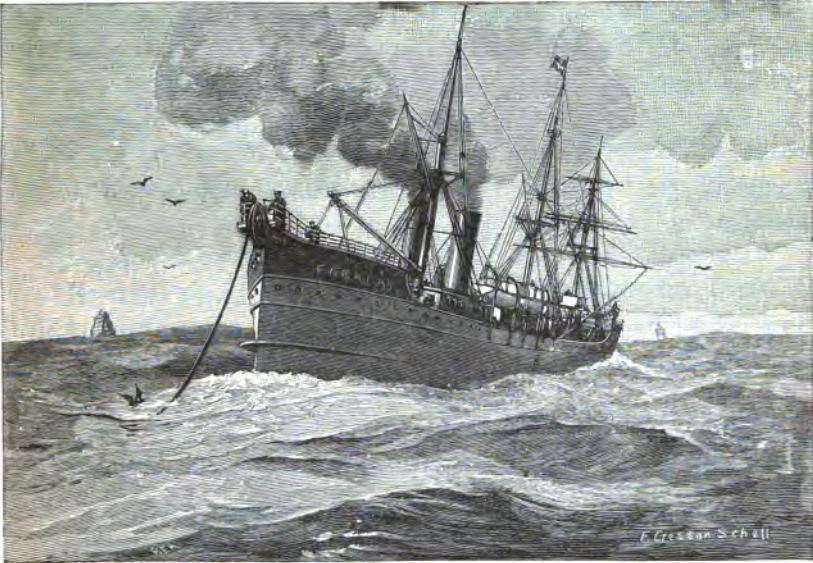
On their return to their homes they all talked about it, so that the fact of the successful operation of the electric telegraph was thoroughly understood at once all over the United States.

So the American electro-magnetic telegraph was perfected and put into successful operation. Its use has rapidly increased, until to-day there is a telegraph station in almost every hamlet of the whole country, and indeed in the civilized world.

In the United States alone we have nearly one million miles of telegraphic wire in operation, with about twenty-five thousand offices, sending annually nearly seventy-five million messages and receiving for the same about twenty-five million dollars. Besides these telegraph lines upon the land, the world is now well supplied with ocean cables, with the wires laid at the bottom of the sea. Within forty years past these cables have increased, until we have now in the world something like one hundred thousand miles of cable lines under water.

The history of the ocean telegraph would be of great interest if we had time to consider it. Through the efforts of Mr. Cyrus W. Field and others, the first cable across the Atlantic was laid (in 1858), and within the next two weeks about four hundred messages were sent. Then the signals became unintelligible.

In 1866 the second Atlantic cable was successfully laid. The wire for this cable was twenty-three hundred miles in length and weighed more than forty thousand tons. It was carried upon the steamship *Great Eastern*. But the story of



LAYING AN OCEAN CABLE.

ocean telegraph cables is too long to be told here. You must find these accounts in other books, and it is hoped that you will read them with more interest because of the story which has now been given you. A very recent incident is told that shows something of the greatness of the telegraph. In June, 1897, a great celebration took place in London, in honor of the sixty years that Queen Victoria had been upon the British throne. The Queen rode in a procession through streets

packed with millions of people. Just as she left the palace she pressed an electric button. Instantly this message was sent to her colonies all over the world:

“From my heart I thank my beloved people. May God bless them. Victoria, R. I.”

To forty different points in her empire sped the electric message. In sixteen minutes a reply came from Ottawa in Canada; then one by one the answers came in from more remote provinces; until, before the Queen reached London Bridge, the Cape of Good Hope, the Gold Coast of Africa, and the great continent of Australia had sent responses to her message.

We should pay great honor to Professor Morse and Cyrus W. Field for their heroic efforts and the perseverance by which they have given to the world the American telegraph and the ocean cables.

Give the circumstances which turned Morse's thoughts to the invention of the telegraph.

Give an account of the difficulties which Morse met; of the bill in the United States Senate.

Tell the story of the first message; of the political convention.

Give an account of the ocean cable.

Tell the story about the Queen's message.

What did the painter West mean by stating that what George III. said “was creditable to his heart”? Professor Morse, at the dinner-table, used the words “be made visible”; why did he not say “be seen”? Why did Morse need an alphabet? Why are most inventors poor? Why do telegraph wires most often run by the side of the railroads? What did the Queen mean when she wrote her name “Victoria R. I.”?



CHAPTER XXXI
Abraham Lincoln

1809-1865

It is related that Horace Greeley once advised a friend: "Go West, young man, go West, and grow up with the country."

By this remark he meant that there were then more opportunities for a young man to rise in the world, to make a name for himself, in the West, than if he stayed in the more thickly settled portions of the East.

The history of the United States gives us the stories of many young men who have shown that, in their cases at least, Greeley's advice was good.

The West has gradually moved farther and farther west, as the Eastern country has become more and more closely settled. A hundred years ago the New West was just over the Alleghany Mountains; now even the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast are almost too old to be called the New West.

The first Western movement of our American people was of course across the Atlantic Ocean to these shores, and among the earliest Puritan emigrants was one Samuel Lincoln, who settled in the new country about Boston.

Samuel Lincoln's grandson, Mordecai, moved west to

New Jersey, and thence to Pennsylvania when that colony was young. Mordecai Lincoln's son John continued the western journey—southwest it was—and made a home in western Virginia. John Lincoln's son Abraham was one of the early pioneers in the territory of Kentucky, where he was killed by the Indians. One of his sons, Thomas Lin-



THE HUT WHERE LINCOLN WAS BORN.

coln, continued the migration after the birth of his son Abraham, and moved northwest into Indiana, and finally into Illinois.

In this State Abraham Lincoln, who was destined to be one of the greatest of our Presidents, spent his manhood.

Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky early in the present century. His father, who had lived all his boyhood in that new region and had met with many of the trials and hardships of rude frontier life, was very poor and had almost no school education. His mother, whose family also had come to Kentucky many years before, had no property, but she had received more schooling than her husband had.

Their home was the ordinary one of a poor Western settler, a log cabin of one room. It had one door, and a great log chimney outside of the house. To such a rude, uncomfortable life was Abraham Lincoln born.

The boy could have had but little remembrance of his Kentucky life, for he was still young when his father moved

into Indiana. After the arrival of the family, the new house was built in the midst of a dense forest.

Even the seven-year-old boy Abraham used an axe to aid in making a clearing. The cabin was ruder than the home which they had left in Kentucky. It contained no furniture except of home make; its chairs were boards into which legs were fitted; its bedsteads were made of two upright posts with cross poles running from these and inserted into the walls of the cabin. The boy's bed was of dry leaves in the loft.

Plenty of food could be easily obtained; but it was mainly that of camp life. Game and fish they had in great abundance; but corn and wheat were scarce. Potatoes were almost the only vegetables raised. Food was cooked in a very simple and rude manner; the new settlers had few cooking-vessels, and grocery stores were far away.

Soap and candles were always made at home, and clothing was never purchased. All cotton clothes had to be made from the raw material; the cotton must be raised, picked, spun, and woven by the women of the home. Often deer-skin trousers, coonskin caps, and home-made moccasins formed part of the boy's attire.

Young Abraham grew up a strong boy; he continued to wield the axe; he entered into all the work on the farm. He ploughed the ground, he harrowed the soil, he mowed the grain, he threshed the wheat, he carried the grist to mill. He hired out to the neighbors to do anything that was needed, the pay going to his father. Not until he was eighteen did he earn any money for himself.

"After much persuasion," as President Lincoln later told the story, "I had got the consent of my mother and had constructed a flatboat. A steamer was going down the river. We had, you know, no wharves on the Western streams, and

the custom was, if passengers were at any of the landings, they were to go out in a boat, the steamer stopping and taking them on board. I was on my new boat when two men with trunks came down to the shore, and, looking at the different boats, singled out mine and asked:

“‘Who owns this boat?’

“I answered modestly, ‘I do.’

“‘Will you take us and our trunks out to the steamer?’

“‘Certainly,’ said I. I was very glad to have the chance of earning something and supposed that each of them would give me a couple of bits. The trunks were put in my boat, the passengers seated themselves upon them, and I sculled them out to the steamer. They got on board, and I lifted the trunks and put them on the deck. The steamer was about to put on steam again, when I called out:

“‘You have forgotten to pay me.’

“Each of them took from his pocket a silver half-dollar and threw it on the bottom of the boat. I could scarcely believe my eyes as I picked up the money. I could scarcely credit that I, the poor boy, had earned a dollar in less than a day; that by honest work I had earned a dollar. I was a more hopeful and thoughtful boy from that time.”

During all his boyhood Abraham strove for an education. He obtained little from schools, for he was not able to go to school more than a year in all. But he did read; he read everything that he could obtain. He not only read the books, but came to know them through and through. Very few books belonged to the family, but Abraham borrowed from his neighbors. One of these books, Weems’ “Life of Washington,” unfortunately got wet and soiled. It required three days’ labor to make good the loss, but after that the injured book belonged to the studious boy.

Lincoln once said that he had "read through every book he had ever heard of in that country for a circuit of fifty miles." He would read and cipher after his day's work was done; he would often be found stretched out on the floor, reading by the light of the fire; he found time for reading when ploughing, as his horse must be allowed to rest at the



YOUNG LINCOLN STUDYING BY FIRELIGHT.

end of the furrows. Every newspaper that came to the village somehow found its way into his hand.

Time passed on and Abraham grew to manhood. His father moved to Illinois, carrying his goods and those of two other families in a wagon drawn by four oxen. Abraham drove the team and took the opportunity to do a little trading business of his own. Before leaving Indiana he spent all his

money, about thirty dollars, for notions—pins, needles, thread, buttons, knives, forks, and other needful household articles. These he peddled at the houses along the road, selling them all before he reached the end of his journey, and doubling his money by the little business operation.

Wishing to be more among people, young Lincoln became a clerk in a store. Here his natural talent for speechmaking was much used, until one day he had an open debate with a candidate for office, and was congratulated by his opponent for his clever speech. This roused the young man's ambition still further, and he began, as he said, to study "subjects." By the advice of the schoolmaster of the place he sought a grammar. Hearing of a copy six miles away, he walked to the place and borrowed it.

After that he spent many evenings at a cooper's shop, studying by the light of the fire of shavings. He recited from the book, he obtained help from the schoolmaster, and finally he said, "If that is what they call a science, I think I'll go another."

Lincoln was very popular among his neighbors, and though but a poor, unschooled country boy, he ran for the State Legislature from his county, when but twenty-three years of age. The Black Hawk Indian War broke out just at this time, and Lincoln served through the war as a captain. When he returned, it lacked but a few days of election. Lincoln was defeated, as the county gave a majority for the candidate of the other party; in his own neighborhood, however, where he was best known, he received two hundred and seventy-seven votes out of two hundred and ninety cast for representative.

Lincoln next bought a store, which he kept for a few years; he became postmaster; he learned surveying and was

appointed deputy surveyor of the county. While in his store he bought a barrel of odds and ends of a man who was moving farther west, and who wished to make his load a little lighter. In this barrel Lincoln found a set of law books, called Blackstone's "Commentaries."

"I began to read these famous works," said he afterward, "and I had plenty of time. The more I read, the more intensely interested I became. I read them until I devoured them." Lincoln was now started on the road to be a lawyer.

Eleven years after Lincoln's defeat for the Legislature, he was again a candidate, was elected, and then served as a representative for eight years. While in the Assembly, he completed the study of law and was admitted to the bar.

Declining another reelection, Lincoln devoted himself to the practice of law until he was sent to the House of Representatives at Washington for two years. Returning to Illinois, he became a leader in the new Republican party, which was formed to oppose the further extension of slavery.

Lincoln was little known outside of his State until he became a candidate for the United States Senate. His Democratic opponent was Stephen A. Douglas, and these two men spoke daily from the same platforms; they kept up a long debate, day after day, as they traveled over the State. Douglas desired to quiet the rising quarrel over the slavery question by leaving all discussion of it to the individual States and Territories. Lincoln hated slavery, and believed that it must not spread into any more States. He stated his idea in this way:

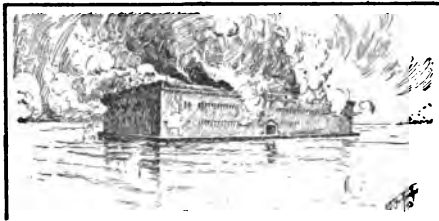
"A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free."

Douglas, however, was chosen senator; but, two years

later (1860), Lincoln was elected President of the United States.

For many years the people of the North, where there were no slaves, and the people of the South, who held slaves, had become more and more alienated from each other.

The people of the North had very generally come to believe in a strong national government. The people of the South were in favor of "State rights," making the separate States superior to the Union.



FORT SUMTER FIRED ON BY SOUTH CAROLINA TROOPS.

The people of the North thought that slavery was wrong; the people of the South had become more and more attached to their "peculiar institution," as slave-holding was

called. Many people in the North felt strongly that slavery should be restricted to the States where it then existed. The people of the South, on the contrary, held that the entire Western territory should be open to them and their slaves.

Lincoln was elected President by the Republican party, which had declared against any further extension of slavery. For ten years the number of free States had been greater than that of slave States, and the slavery leaders saw that they could not obtain what they sought.

They, therefore, now determined to withdraw their States from the Union and set up a government of their own. Lincoln was inaugurated President, March 4th, 1861, but before that date seven States had seceded and formed a new govern-

ment, called the "Confederate States of America." This government was begun at Montgomery, Alabama; but, when four more States had joined them, Richmond, Virginia, was made the capital of the Confederacy.

In April, a Confederate force opened fire upon Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, which was held by United States troops. The next day Major Anderson and his small force surrendered.

War was thus commenced. At the North the excitement was intense. At the South the enthusiasm was equally great. President Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand volunteer soldiers. Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States, issued his proclamation for troops. The Civil War followed: a war to determine whether the United States should be supreme and indivisible, or whether each State might be superior to the Union and at liberty to withdraw from it.

A terrible strife had begun; a civil war—the worst form of war in which men can engage; a war in which the soldiers facing each other belong to one and the same country; a war in which friends fight against friends, and often brothers against brothers. We will not here follow the course of events in this war. They will be treated in following chapters.

Is it possible for us to form any adequate idea of the burden which Abraham Lincoln carried through those four long years?



JEFFERSON DAVIS, PRESIDENT OF
THE CONFEDERACY.

What broad statesmanship was required; what clear vision was needed; what accurate judgment; what even temper; what tender feelings of mercy; what love for his fellow-men, for all humanity; what respect and deference to the conflicting views of the great statesmen and business men of the country; what tact, what skill, what readiness in emergencies; what clear insight; what breadth of outlook; indeed, it is impossible to appreciate the various requirements necessary in the leader of a great people, the executive of a great nation, the commander-in-chief of the armies which included a million of men and more, in carrying forward to a successful conclusion a war of more gigantic proportions than the modern world has elsewhere seen.

But Lincoln was equal to this task. "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right," the man of a sad face performed his great task with nobleness of purpose, with singleness of heart, and with complete success.

A few months after the battle of Gettysburg, President Lincoln made a short speech at the dedication of the national cemetery at that place. He closed this famous address with this sentence, which is well worthy to be studied by every boy and girl, by every man and woman, in the country:

"It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

When the war ended, "government by the people" was firmly established; "a new birth of freedom" had come to the United States.

At the murder of Lincoln the whole world mourned. Tributes were everywhere paid to his great worth. Among them were the burning words uttered in the Spanish Cortes by that great statesman, Emilio Castelar. The closing paragraph of his speech reads as follows:

"I have often contemplated and described Abraham Lincoln's life. Born in a cabin in Kentucky, of parents who could hardly read, born a new Moses in the solitude of the desert where are forged great and obstinate thoughts, monotonous like the desert, and, like the desert, sublime; growing up among those primeval forests, which with their fragrance send a cloud of incense, and with their murmurs a cloud of prayers to heaven; boatman at eight years, on the impetuous current of the Ohio; and at seventeen, on the vast and tranquil waters of the Mississippi, . . . he was raised by the nation to the Presidency of the Republic.

"The wood-cutter, the boatman, the son of the great West, the descendant of Quakers, humblest of the humble before his conscience, greatest of the great in history, ascends the



STATUE OF LINCOLN FREEING THE SLAVE.
(BOTH IN WASHINGTON AND BOSTON.)

Capitol, strong and serene with his conscience and his thought; before him a veteran army, hostile Europe behind him, England favoring the South, France encouraging reaction in Mexico, in his hands the riven country; he arms two millions of men, gathers a half-million horses, sends his artillery twelve hundred miles in a week, from the banks of the Potomac to the shores of the Tennessee, fights more than six hundred battles, renews before Richmond the deeds of Alexander and of Cæsar; and, after having emancipated three million slaves, that nothing might be wanting, he dies in the moment of victory; like Christ, like Socrates, like all redeemers, at the foot of his work. His work! sublime achievement, over which humanity shall eternally shed its tears, and God bestow His benediction."

Describe the route by which the Lincoln family gradually moved from England to Illinois.

Give an account of young Lincoln's homes and his work as a boy.

Tell his story about the first money that he earned for himself.

State how Abraham educated himself.

Give some account of Lincoln's public life.

State what separated the North from the South.

Is Greeley's advice good to-day? Why did Abraham grow up "a strong boy"? What did he intend to do with his flatboat? Why did he have so little schooling? Do you suppose he obtained as much from his few books as you do from your many? What two "subjects" did Abraham teach himself? How was the United States a "house divided against itself"? Why did the Southern States leave the Union? Why was Northern excitement and Southern enthusiasm so great after the firing upon Fort Sumter?



Genl. R. E. Lee



Arlington, the Home of Lee

CHAPTER XXXII

Robert E. Lee

1807-1870

AFTER Mr. Lincoln was elected President, and before his inauguration, seven States in the extreme South, as we have already seen, seceded and formed a new government, called the "Confederate States of America." Later, four more States seceded and joined this Confederacy.

Eleven States, therefore, all located in the South, all being slave States, had undertaken to withdraw from the Union and set up a government of their own. The capture of Fort Sumter, a national fort, by South Carolina troops, was the act which began the war and occasioned the forming of two great armies—the army of the Republic, to maintain the unity of the nation, to preserve the Union; and the army of the Confederacy, to uphold the new government in the South.

Then four years of war, embracing great military movements, added many names to the world's list of distinguished soldiers. As the war progressed, one man after another came to the front, until before the close of the contest the Union Army had developed such men as Gen. U. S. Grant, who finally

received the surrender of General Lee and put an end to the war; Gen. William T. Sherman, who ploughed such a mighty furrow from Atlanta to the sea, through the middle of the Confederacy; Gen. Phil. H. Sheridan, the hero of Winchester; Gen. George B. McClellan, who fought the battles of the



A CONFEDERATE
SOLDIER.

Peninsula; Gen. A. E. Burnside, the popular commander of the army of the Potomac, who was defeated at Fredericksburg; "Fighting Joe Hooker," who lost at Chancellorsville; Gen. George G. Meade, who won the decisive battle of Gettysburg; Gens. George H. Thomas and W. S. Rosecrans of Chickamauga fame; Gen. Winfield S. Hancock; Gen. John A. Logan, and many other generals whose names are worthy to be added to this list.

The Confederate army, too, brought out no less military genius and ability in their principal commanders. Many of the officers in the regular army who had been educated in the Military Academy at West Point were from the South and sided with the States to which they belonged. As early as August, 1861, the Confederate Congress created five full generals of the Confederate army. These were Samuel Cooper, Albert Sydney Johnston, Robert E. Lee, Joseph E. Johnston, and P. G. T. Beauregard.

Beside these distinguished officers on the Confederate side, were Gen. Edmund Kirby Smith, who had command beyond the Mississippi River; Gen. James Longstreet, one of Lee's ablest assistants; Gen. T. J. ("Stonewall") Jackson, a conscientious, able, bold leader; Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, of cavalry

fame; Gen. A. P. Hill, Gen. Leonidas Polk, and many others who were justly celebrated as military leaders.

Before one year of the war had passed, General Lee was ordered to Richmond, and assigned to duty "under the direction of the President, charged with the conduct of military operations in the armies of the Confederacy." General Lee for more than three years led the armies of the South in that terrible war, and was without doubt the greatest general of the Southern army, and one of the greatest ever produced in America.

He was the son of that famous hero of the Revolution, Gen. Henry Lee, known everywhere as "Light-horse Harry." He was educated at the Military Academy at West Point, where he graduated almost at the head of his class at the age of twenty-two. He served in the Mexican War and subsequently was in command of the Academy at West Point.

In the middle of the first summer of the war came the battle of Bull Run, where the Confederates were victorious. In March, 1862, the Union iron-clad *Monitor* fought the Con-



BATTLE MAP SHOWING WHERE THE UNION GENERALS FOUGHT LEE.

federate iron-clad *Merrimac*. Both vessels were novelties, and excited great fear and wonder. The *Merrimac*, sheathed in iron armor, steamed up to the Union wooden war-vessels in Hampton Roads and began to destroy them. It sunk one and ran another aground and burned it. The next morning,



GENERAL LEE AND GENERAL JACKSON'S COUNCIL
OF WAR AT CHANCELLORSVILLE.

as the *Merrimac* again started out of Norfolk harbor to finish her task, there suddenly appeared the new *Monitor*, which the soldiers said looked like "a cheese-box on a raft." It drove off the Confederate ironclad and gave a decisive turn to the naval operations of the war, and, indeed, began a change in all naval warfare throughout the world.

During the spring and summer following this naval battle, came the fiercely fought Pen-

insula Campaign. McClellan commanded the Union forces, and Lee the Confederate army. Lee was repulsed at Malvern Hill and McClellan swung his army safely over to the James River. But Lee so ably opposed his adversary that the Union army could not successfully operate against Richmond from that point and was finally withdrawn from the Peninsula, to the joy of the South and the disgust of the North.

Time would fail to tell of Pope's campaign, where Lee was victorious; of South Mountain and Antietam, where he was defeated, all in the summer of 1862; of how, in December, he inflicted terrible disaster upon Burnside at Fredericksburg, and in the next May upon General Hooker at Chancellorsville, which was perhaps the most severe defeat the Union forces experienced.

After this, Lee determined to invade the North. In June, 1863, he pushed his army of about eighty thousand men across Maryland and into Pennsylvania. This was a bold proceeding. Lee was obliged to leave his base of supplies and invade the enemy's country. His design evidently was to capture Harrisburg, the capital of Pennsylvania, and then move on Philadelphia, Baltimore, or Washington.

The Union army, still under General Hooker, also started across Maryland, keeping between the Confederate army and the capital. Hooker resigned his command during the march, and General Meade was immediately appointed to take his place. Lee crossed into Pennsylvania and marched his army through the hill-country eastward, toward the town of Gettysburg. The advance of the Union army met Lee's forces on the 1st of July, just outside of this town. On the first three days of July occurred the great battle of Gettysburg.

The first day's fight was really only a reconnoissance, and the Confederates had the advantage. During the next two days the Union forces occupied the ground from Culp's Hill past the cemetery, along the line of Cemetery Ridge to Round Top. This formed a line of battle shaped like a fish-hook, the crooked end being at Culp's Hill and the long end of the hook at Round Top.

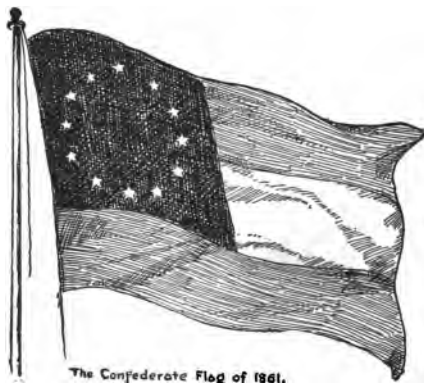
Lee made three attempts to break the Union lines. First, on the right of that line at Culp's Hill; again, on its left near



GENERAL PICKETT'S CHARGE AT GETTYSBURG.

Round Top; and, finally, on the third day, near its centre, where Pickett's charge met its bloody repulse. Each time he was unsuccessful, and finally was obliged to withdraw his forces and retreat across the Potomac.

The remainder of the war will be considered in the next chapter. It only remains for us here to note the life of Lee after the war was closed. He at once withdrew from public affairs, not in moody gloom or with vexed spirit, but, like a great man, acting under a firm conviction of duty, he betook himself to the work of a private citizen. He accepted the results of the war, and used all his influence to restore friendly relations between the two sections.



The Confederate Flag of 1861.

He was made president of Washington College in Virginia, afterward re-named Washington and Lee University, and there he passed the remainder of his life, holding the greatest respect and love of all, in his faithful and successful work of educating young men. He died on the 12th of October, 1870, in his sixty-fourth year.

Tell what you can of the life of General Lee, previous to the Civil War.

Give some account of McClellan's Peninsular campaign.

Describe the battle of Gettysburg.

Why did the capture of Fort Sumter begin the war? What previous war-experience had some of the generals of the Civil War had? Why was the *Monitor* called a "cheese-box on a raft"? Why did Lee attempt to invade the North? Do you think it was a wise plan? Give your reasons. What did Lee do after the war?



CHAPTER XXXIII

Ulysses S. Grant

1822-1885

THE Civil War brought to the front on both sides many great men, who only needed an opportunity to show to the world the strength of their minds or the brilliancy of their talents. General Grant is a conspicuous example. A man's surroundings and opportunities have much to do with the reputation which he is enabled to make.

When the war broke out Grant was in the full strength of his manhood, being then thirty-nine years old. He was a native of Ohio, and his father was a farmer and a tanner. He had the good fortune therefore to be brought up on a farm, which is the best place in the world for a boy. He graduated at West Point Military Academy when he was twenty-one years of age.

Previous to the Civil War, Grant's career was varied. In the Mexican War he commanded a company, acted as quartermaster, as adjutant of the regiment; and under General Scott performed a variety of daring services. In 1853 he was made captain, and the next year resigned his command.

and with his family settled on a small farm at St. Louis. One year before the war began, he removed to Illinois and acted as clerk in his father's store, where he sold hardware and leather.

As soon as he heard that Fort Sumter had been captured, he took a strong stand for the Union and at once raised a company of volunteers, drilled them, and took them to Springfield, the capital of the State. He was appointed colonel of an Illinois regiment and entered the field of active service in Missouri. In August he was made brigadier-general, and in September he seized Paducah, in Kentucky, and fortified it. Early the next year, 1862, he captured Fort Henry, and besieged Fort Donelson. General Buckner, who was then in command of the fort, sent a flag of truce to Grant, asking what terms he would give if he would surrender. Grant immediately returned this brief and historic reply:

"No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."

Buckner surrendered with fifteen thousand men, and the Confederate line of defence was broken. After a little the Confederates fell back to Corinth, where in April Grant fought the great battle of Shiloh. The Confederates retreated, and



A FEDERAL SOLDIER.

the Union army held the country from Memphis to Chattanooga.

Then came the siege of Vicksburg, where Grant showed great generalship. Finally, on the 4th of July, 1863, General Pemberton surrendered Vicksburg to Grant, with his entire force of more than thirty thousand troops, sixty thousand muskets, and a large amount of military stores. The surrender of Vicksburg and the repulse of Lee at Gettysburg, coming as they did at the same time, may be considered the turning-point of the war. Grant was now made a major-general and received from Congress a gold medal.

Grant had clearly proved his superior ability as a general, and in March, 1864, he was made lieutenant-general and given command of all the armies of the Union. He now undertook to march his army through the Wilderness toward Richmond.

What a terrible campaign that was! In a single month the two armies lost perhaps ten thousand killed, fifty thousand wounded, and ten thousand missing. Grant transferred his army to the James River and from that time until the following spring, for nearly a year, the contest was desperate. At length in April, 1865, Lee and his forces left Richmond, and Grant's army entered the Confederate capital. Lee now attempted a forced march toward the South, but, being hemmed in by Grant's army and Sheridan's cavalry, he surrendered his army to Grant (April 9th, 1865), at Appomattox Court House.

Meantime General Sherman had made his famous march through Georgia. General Johnston yielded to Sherman, and Gen. Kirby Smith surrendered his forces west of the Mississippi River. The war was ended.

The President issued a proclamation of amnesty, and Lee

applied by letter, asking to be included in this amnesty. Grant had shown his noble nature by the very liberal terms which he had given to Lee's army at the surrender. He had allowed them to retain their horses, side-arms, and baggage,



GRANT IN THE CAMPAIGN OF THE WILDERNESS.

and had simply taken from them a promise that they would no longer contend against the United States government. He had also furnished them with a large amount of rations and supplies. Grant indorsed Lee's letter applying for amnesty, as follows:

“Respectfully forwarded, through the Secretary of War, to the President, with the earnest recommendation that the application of Gen. Robert E. Lee for amnesty and pardon be granted him.”



GENERAL SHERMAN.

Now that the war was over, let us see what were its results. We must remember that eleven States withdrew from the Union, formed a Confederacy of their own, and attacked Fort Sumter. The United States government refused to recognize this separation, and considered the armed attack as a rebellion to be put down by arms. President Lincoln called for volunteers to enforce the laws of the Union in those States. When the war ended in the victory of the United States, the theory of secession was overthrown; henceforth the United States is a Nation, one and indivisible.

Although the war was fought for the preservation of the Union, another result followed from it. President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, in the midst of the war, declaring the slaves in those States that were still in arms against the Union to be free. It was then clear that if the United States was victorious, slavery would cease.

Soon after the end of the war, an amendment to the national Constitution was adopted, forever forbidding slavery in any part of the United States. Lincoln was right when he

said, long before: "This government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free." It is now all free.

These results came from the war; but at what terrible cost! We cannot tell of the great numbers that were killed; of the greater numbers that were wounded; of the suffering and sorrow in thousands of homes. We cannot tell of the



enormous expense; the heavy taxes, both then and now, for we still spend vast sums in pensions to our soldiers, and to pay the interest on the debt which grew out of the war. We cannot tell of the fearful injury to the States which seceded; for they bore the full brunt of the war and it left them in poverty.

A third of a century has passed since the surrender at Appomattox. The wounds of the great war have now well healed. The United States has had a prosperous history.

North, East, West, and South have grown with wonderful rapidity.

Not the least remarkable has been the history of the Southern States. They have risen from their defeat. They lost their all; but they began again and have regained prosperity. The United States government treated the vanquished with great mildness. No one was put to death at the end of the war; but few were imprisoned, and most of those only for a brief time; all were freely pardoned, and all their former rights were restored to them, at least if they so desired.

The Southern States are to-day as loyal to the government as the Northern; their response to the call of the President of the United States to assist in freeing Cuba was quick and enthusiastic. The United States are now united.

All honor has been given to the heroes of the Civil War. First and foremost, the country loves the memory of Abraham Lincoln, "Our Martyred President," who, but a few days after the surrender, died from the shot of an assassin.

General Grant received the highest honors that our country has ever given to any man. He was the first, after Washington, to be made general of the United States Army. He was twice elected President. He made a tour around the world as a private citizen, and he was everywhere received as one of the great men of the world. He was honored by kings and emperors, by the Czar and the Mikado, by queens and presidents.

Yet, when he returned to the United States, he had not been made proud by his honors; he remained what he had always been, a modest, humble, quiet, plain American citizen. After a long illness, during which the entire country read with bated breath, day by day, the news from his bed-

side, Gen. Ulysses S. Grant died, at Mount McGregor, New York, July 23d, 1885.

Twelve years after his death, when his magnificent tomb in New York was completed, the whole nation took part in the ceremonies of laying his body in its final resting-place.

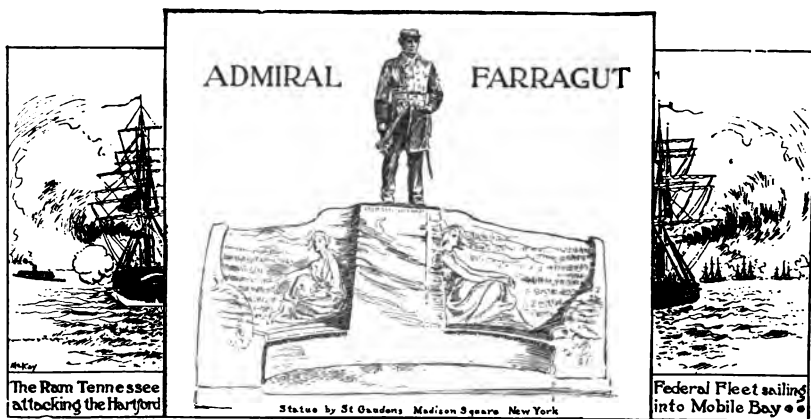
Tell the story of Grant as a boy and a young man; at the opening of the war; at Fort Donelson; at Vicksburg; in Virginia; on his tour around the world.

State the results of the war.

Describe the present condition of the country.

Why is a farm "the best place in the world for a boy"? How long did it take Grant to get to Richmond? How long was the Civil War? Name ten generals mentioned in this and the preceding chapter; state on which side each fought. What is a "proclamation of amnesty"? What do you think was the best point in Grant's character?





CHAPTER XXXIV

David G. Farragut

1801-1870

NAVAL service seems to run in some families; like father, like son. Many of our distinguished naval commanders were sons of naval officers. Admiral Farragut was not an exception to this rule. His father was George Farragut, who took part in the Revolutionary War, and was a friend and companion of General Jackson. At one time Admiral Farragut told this story about his boyhood:

“When I was ten years of age I was with my father on board a man-of-war. I had some qualities that I thought made a man of me. I could swear like an old salt, could drink as stiff a glass of grog as if I had doubled Cape Horn, and could smoke like a locomotive. I was great at cards, and fond of gaming in every shape. At the close of dinner one day my father turned everybody out of the cabin, locked the door, and said to me:

“‘David, what do you mean to be?’ ‘I mean to follow the sea.’ ‘Follow the sea! yes, to be a poor, miserable, drunken sailor before the mast, be kicked and cuffed about the world, and die in some fever hospital in a foreign clime.’ ‘No,’ said I, ‘I’ll tread the quarter-deck, and command as you do.’ ‘No, David; no boy ever trod the quarter-deck with such principles as you have, and such habits as you exhibit. You’ll have to change your whole course of life if you ever become a man.’

“My father left me and went on deck. I was stunned by the rebuke, and overwhelmed with mortification. ‘A poor, miserable, drunken sailor before the mast! be kicked and cuffed about the world,

and die in some fever hospital!’ That’s my fate, is it? I’ll change my life, and change it at once. I will never utter another oath; I will never drink another drop of intoxicating liquor; I will never gamble. I have kept these three vows to this hour. Shortly afterward I became a Christian. That act was the turning-point in my destiny.”

In December, 1861, Farragut was summoned to Washington. Soon after he wrote a hurried note to his wife: “Keep your lips closed and burn my letters, for perfect silence is to be observed—the first injunction of the Secretary. I am to have a flag in the Gulf, and the rest depends



YOUNG FARRAGUT'S LESSON FROM HIS FATHER.

upon myself. Keep calm and silent. I shall sail in three weeks."

The expedition consisted of twenty-one vessels. It sailed away from Hampton Roads early in February, 1862. Its design was to capture the city of New Orleans.

General Butler at the same time sailed for Ship Island with fifteen thousand troops. Farragut sent a boat up the



FARRAGUT'S MORTAR BOATS SHELLING NEW ORLEANS.

river one dark night to cut the chains which the Confederates had put across the river, and make an opening for the fleet to pass through.

At two o'clock in the morning of April 23d, the fleet of thirteen vessels moved up the river. They succeeded in passing the forts after a most desperate battle. They destroyed the Confederate fleet, and, two days after, New Orleans surrendered.

Then General Butler took command of the city, and Farragut with his fleet sailed up the Mississippi until it met the Mississippi gunboat fleet from Memphis.

This capture of New Orleans was a brilliant victory.

Farragut's flagship, the *Hartford*, during her nineteen months of service had been struck by shot and shell two hundred and forty times. On his return home for refitting his

ship, Farragut was received with great honor, and the Union League Club of New York presented him with a beautiful sword with gold and silver scabbard, the hilt set in brilliants.

Early in 1864 Farragut was again sent to the Gulf to attack the defences of Mobile. The object, particularly, was to stop the blockade runners, which were constantly going in and out through Mobile Bay. Farragut issued general orders containing the most minute instructions for every case. Perhaps no commander was ever so completely master of every detail as Farragut, unless it was his young Lieutenant Dewey, whom he particularly commended, and who, at Manila, thirty-four years after, showed the same qualities. He could have taken the place, and performed the duties, of any man in the fleet.

He had seven sloops of war, four iron-clad monitors, and six steamers to keep up a flank fire upon the forts, and now on the 5th of August, 1864, before daylight everybody in the fleet was astir, and at 5:30 the signal was given to advance. Then came a terrible cannonade. The fleet shelled the forts; the forts shelled the fleet.

The smoke was intense. In order to see over it, Commodore Farragut placed himself in the rigging. As the smoke increased he went up higher and higher. Captain Drayton, to prevent his falling to the deck in case he should be wounded, sent up a quartermaster with a rope, which was made fast to the shrouds, passing around the admiral's body.

The fleet sailed three miles up the bay, when a Confederate ram attacked the fleet with tremendous energy. Then ensued a singular but desperate contest. The ram surrendered. A few days later all the forts capitulated.

Farragut's health was now failing and he was ordered home. The people of New York presented him a purse of

\$50,000. He was made vice-admiral and a year or two later Congress created the grade of admiral, a grade unknown before in the United States navy, and the rank was given to Farragut.

After the war Farragut made a long cruise in European waters, visiting the principal capitals of Europe. He was everywhere received with the greatest honors. One of the



FARRAGUT LASHED TO THE RIGGING IN THE BATTLE OF MOBILE BAY.

most interesting incidents of the cruise was a visit to the island of Minorca, the home of Farragut's ancestors, where the whole population turned out to welcome him. He died in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in 1870.

Farragut was a Virginian like Lee. But while Lee felt that his first duty was to his State, Farragut felt that his duty was to the nation. He opposed the secession of Virginia with all his might, and this is the story he told one day of how he left the State in '61:

"I was told by a brother officer that the State had seceded, and that I must either resign and turn traitor to the government which had supported me from childhood, or I must leave this place. Thank God, I was not long in making my decision. I have spent half of my life in revolutionary countries, and I know the horrors of civil war, and I told the people what I had seen and what they would experience. They laughed at me and called me 'granny' and 'croaker'; and I said, 'I cannot live here, and I will seek some other place where I can live.' I suppose they said I left my country for my country's good, and, thank God, I did."

When the war was over, the Union Club of Boston gave a dinner to the admiral, at which Oliver Wendell Holmes read one of his happiest poems, a few lines of which may be quoted here:

"Our stout old commodores,
Hull, Bainbridge, Porter—where are they?
The answering billows roll,
Still bright in memory's sunset ray,
God rest each gallant soul!
A brighter name must dim their light,
With more than noontide ray—
The Viking of the River Fight,
The Conqueror of the Bay.

I give the name that fits him best,
Ay, better than his own,
The Sea-king of the sovereign West,
Who made his mast a throne."

Tell Farragut's story about his boyhood.
Give accounts of the capture of New Orleans; of the great naval battle near Mobile.
Describe Farragut's speech at Norfolk.

Decatur, Porter, and Farragut were all sons of naval officers; did that fact aid them in their life-work? Did Farragut's father know with certainty what would be his son's life if he did not change? Why did Farragut write to his wife to keep "perfect silence"? What were "blockade runners"? Was Farragut safe in his high position on the mast? Why was Farragut called a "croaker"? Whom did Holmes call the "Viking of the River Fight," the "Conqueror of the Bay," the "Sea-king of the sovereign West, who made his mast a throne"? Explain the reason for each expression, if possible.



CHAPTER XXXV

Horace Mann

1796-1859

NEAR the close of the last century, on a small farm in Franklin, Massachusetts, Horace Mann was born. He was a thoughtful and studious boy. From the age of ten until he was twenty he had not more than six weeks' schooling in any one year. The teachers in these schools he afterward described as "very good people, but very poor teachers." His school-books he earned by braiding straw.

When he was twenty years old, he came under the influence of a schoolmaster who was a real scholar, a genius who could appreciate rare mental power when he found it in his pupils. This traveling pedagogue encouraged young Horace to prepare for college and obtain a liberal education. His pupil entered into the plan with an intense zeal, so that in a few months he was admitted to advanced standing in Brown University. He was graduated from college in 1819, and on commencement day he delivered an oration upon "The Progressive Character of the Human Race." He taught Latin and Greek at his alma mater, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1823.

He was a member of the House of Representatives in Massachusetts from 1827 to 1833, and served in the State Senate for the next four years. Through his personal exertions Massachusetts established a Board of Education, and Mr. Mann was at once put at its head as "Secretary." During his long service, in addition to his other duties, he wrote the annual reports of the board to the people of the State. These reports discussed in a forcible manner many new questions of education, and they had a great influence in elevating the standard of public sentiment and of school instruction, not only in the State of Massachusetts, but throughout the whole country. He made a tour in Europe, especially noting all the good features of the schools of Germany, and then gave the result of his observations to his countrymen.

The earnestness of purpose and tremendous industry which he threw into his work could not fail to produce great results. In speaking of his service at a later period, he said: "I labored in this cause an average of not less than fifteen hours a day, and from the beginning to the end of this period (eleven years) I never took a single day for relaxation, and month after month together passed without my withdrawing a single evening to call upon a friend." It was his desire for better schools in America that made him work like this.

While Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education he brought to pass a complete revolution of public sentiment regarding popular education. It was Horace Mann who, by advocating new methods and new plans—at first almost alone and unaided—started the great movement in public-school education in this country which has continued to the present day. There are many things which we call American, in distinction from others called European. Nothing, however, is

more strikingly American than our system of public education.

The New England settlers very early began to establish schools. Education was dear to their hearts. In 1639 the plantation at Dorchester established a school to be supported by taxation. This was the beginning of the American system of public schools. "The property of the State should be taxed to educate the children of the State." To-day this



AN OLD-TIME COUNTRY SCHOOL-ROOM.

principle is applied in every State and every Territory of the Union. On it depends, in large measure, the strength of our republican institutions.

In the early days, as might be supposed, the schools were very crude. Most of the people were spread over the country upon farms. The towns were divided into school districts,

and, after a time, each district managed its own school affairs. The schoolhouses were small, of but one room, and generally located at "the forks of the roads." They might be twenty or twenty-five feet square, with a long desk on each of three sides and a bench of white-oak or hard-pine plank in front of it. Upon the fourth side was a huge fireplace, with a stone chimney. Wood was plenty, and sometimes the "backlog," the "forestick," and the pile of wood between them would measure at least a quarter of a cord. As the districts became better settled, more benches were added, and, at last, stoves were used instead of fireplaces.

Here the "master" kept the school from six to twelve weeks in the winter, and the "mistress" an equal length of time in the summer. Queer reading lessons and queer ways of spelling they had in those days. Webster's "Blue-back" Spelling Book was in general use at the beginning of this century. It had reading as well as spelling lessons, one of the former being the familiar story of the old man who found a rude boy in his apple tree.

They had curious ways of conducting a spelling-lesson. The word "able" would be spelled thus: "A-by-self, a; b-l-e, ble—able." "Aaron" would be spelled in this way: "Great A, little a; r-o-n, ron—Aaron." Great attention was given in the spelling to the pronunciation of the syllables, and sometimes a little extra explanation would be thrown in.

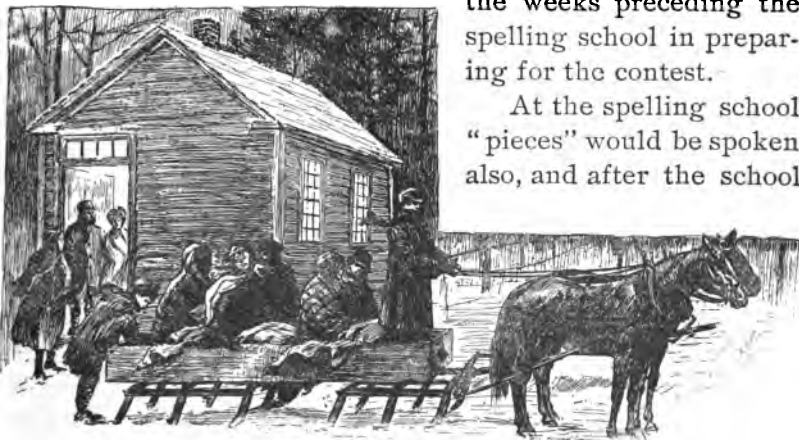
In some places the word "abomination" would be spelled after this fashion: "A, there's your a; b-o-m, bom, there's your bom, there's your abom; i-n, in, there's your in, there's your bomin, there's your abomin; a, there's your a, there's your ina, there's your bomina, there's your abomina; t-i-o-n, tion, there's your tion, there's your ation, there's your ination, there's your bomination, there's your abomination."

In those days the spelling school was a great institution. It was, for the whole neighborhood, equal to a theatrical play. Great fun the young people had. Sometimes a school district would be pitted against the next school district, and, as the master "put out" the words, the contest would consist in a severe trial to see which district would be "floored" first.

The spellers from one district would be ranged along one side of the room and those from the other district along the other side. The first word would be given to the first speller on one side, the next word to the first speller on the other side, then to the second speller, and so on. If one missed a word, he must immediately take his seat. Rapidly the ranks would be thinned, and by and by the contest would be carried on perhaps between two spellers, one on each side. Then, as one missed and the other was victorious, a mighty shout would rise up. Many would spend a great amount of time during

the weeks preceding the spelling school in preparing for the contest.

At the spelling school "pieces" would be spoken also, and after the school



THE RIDE HOME AFTER "SPELLING SCHOOL."

was over would come games, and, if the sleighing was good, an extended sleigh-ride, on the principle that the longest way around was the nearest way home.

In those old times everybody had very positive ideas upon the question of "school discipline." A woman might keep school in the summer, when only the younger scholars went to school; but in the winter it was understood that all the big boys in the neighborhood would attend school, and therefore the committee must find a man that would be unquestionably the *master*. He must be able to prevent the big boys from defying his authority, throwing him out of the window, pitching him into a snowbank, or riding him on a rail. All of these shameful performances have been known to be executed in the early days in some of the New England school districts.

Under such conditions, of course, there would occasionally be found a tyrannical school-master, one who would make habitual use of the "ferule," who would keep some stout hickory sticks on hand prepared for an emergency, who would sometimes bump the heads of two boys together, who would lift up little girls by their ears until they bled. Compared with these coarse and brutal ways on the part of both the boys and the master, the delightful relations of our modern school-rooms seem to belong to a different world.

The studies pursued in the schools of those early days consisted mainly of the three R's—"Readin', Ritin', and 'Rithmetic." The writing book was usually made of six sheets of foolscap paper with a brown-paper cover sewed on, and the copies were set by the master or mistress, at the top of the page. The writing was done with a quill pen, and the experienced teacher always took great pride in his ability to make and mend pens. A sharp penknife was needed. The new quill must be scraped on the outside to remove the thin

film, a sort of cuticle which enveloped the quill proper. One dexterous stroke cut off what was to become the underside of the pen. A single motion of the knife made the slit. Two quick strokes removed the two upper corners, leaving the point. Then came the most delicate part of this mechanical process. The point of the pen was placed upon the thumbnail of the left hand. The knife was deftly guided so as to cut off the extreme end of the pen directly across the slit, leaving a smooth end, not too blunt so as to make too large a mark, and not too fine so as to scratch. The pen was then ready for use.

All this is now long past. The old method of teaching, the old system of discipline, the old schoolhouse, and the course of study which included only the three R's, have all given place to modern and improved methods.

Graded schools; houses properly lighted, heated, and ventilated; courses of study enriched and refined; true methods of presenting the subjects to be studied; manual training and physical training—these all are parts of the modern system.

Teachers are now selected, not because of their physical ability to "keep school," but because they have been trained to teach, have been carefully taught how to present the subjects properly to the child's mind; these are the teachers of to-day.



A MASTER MENDING A QUILL PEN.

Our school system, however, did not begin at the bottom and work upward, but it began at the top and reached downward. Harvard College, in Massachusetts, was founded in 1636; William and Mary College, in Virginia, in 1693; Yale College, in Connecticut, in 1700; and by the middle of the eighteenth century, three others had been started—King's College, now Columbia University, in New York; Princeton University, in New Jersey; and the University of Pennsylvania.

The colleges required preparatory schools. The Boston Latin School was begun in 1635, and other preparatory schools followed from necessity. About a hundred years ago, private academies were established in large numbers, to prepare young men for college and for business life. During the first half of the nineteenth century these academies played a very important part in the history of education. But about the middle of this century Massachusetts by law made public high schools compulsory in all her larger towns. These high schools soon spread into all the States; they have displaced many of the private academies, and have brought "secondary education," as it is called, within the reach of all the people.

Within the last half of the nineteenth century, vast sums of money have been given for the endowment of colleges throughout the United States. Probably in no part of the world or in any preceding age have such large sums of money been given for educational purposes as have been contributed by individuals and voted by the people within the last fifty years to endow institutions of learning in our country.

In another direction a marked improvement has been made—namely, in the education of women. Before this country obtained its independence, but little attention had been given to the education of girls. They were taught at home to cook,

to sew, to embroider, but their school privileges were very meager. Progress in the education of young women was slow indeed; until within quite recent years. But for half a century our people have been awake to the duty of giving to girls every chance for learning that boys enjoy.

It has been demonstrated that women learn the arts, sciences, and literature as easily, as rapidly, and as thoroughly as men do. Many colleges have been established for women, and they are all full to overflowing. Some of the older as well as the newer universities have opened their doors to women on equal terms with men. Young women are now in large numbers taking post-graduate courses and becoming proficient in various and diverse lines of study.

We have special schools for nearly every pursuit requiring great skill. Normal schools educate our teachers. Technical schools educate our mechanics, engineers, bridge-builders, mining engineers, and architects. There are schools for manual training and physical training; schools for the blind, the deaf, and those otherwise defective; schools in the prisons, night schools, and summer schools, and, indeed, schools of all sorts and for all purposes.

In England, Germany, and France the universities have their special excellences. But the American system of education, including public schools, State universities, colleges, technical schools, and others, all combine to furnish the education which is best adapted to the people of America. We have made rapid advance in science, in the arts, in the comforts of life, in our industrial pursuits, and especially in our marvelous inventions and manufactures; but probably our educational system shows the most wonderful achievements of all. The progress of our schools and our teaching has been so rapid, so varied, so universal, and so dear to the



THE NATION'S NEW LIBRARY, AT WASHINGTON.—THE MOST SUMPTUOUS LIBRARY BUILDING IN THE WORLD.

hearts of all the people, that it stands out as the most remarkable and characteristic thing in America.

With the enthusiasm for education in the schoolroom, the love of books has grown among the people, and our country has produced many able writers.

Once, long ago, Sidney Smith, a sharp-tongued English critic, asked contemptuously, "Who reads an American book?" Now the whole reading world reads American books. Beginning with Washington Irving, who wrote so charmingly about Spain and old New York, and gave us "Rip Van Winkle," we have had a splendid company of such historians as Bancroft, Prescott, Parkman, Motley, and MacMaster; of such poets as Bryant, Longfellow, Holmes, Whittier, Lowell, Emerson, Poe, Lanier, Whitman; such story-tellers as Cooper, Hawthorne, Cable, James, Howells, Mrs. Stowe, Mrs. Phelps Ward, Mrs. Hodgson Burnett, Crawford, and Davis; and such humorous writers as "Artemus Ward," "Mark Twain," and the narrator of "Uncle Remus"; besides scores of other authors who are scarcely less eminent.

Americans love to read. We have a public library system unmatched in the world. Nearly every city has its great library, and as fast as the towns grow in culture they put up a public library building, where books are free to all the citizens. The Boston Library is one of the wonders of our country. The Congressional Library in Washington is the most sumptuous house for books in the world. Simple, but of vast influence are the book clubs and the traveling libraries which now extend the privilege of literature to the humblest villages. Local bands for reading and study, like the Chautauqua circles, and the countless women's clubs, carry the impulse of education farther and farther.

But this universal impulse is due to the American public



RAISING THE SCHOOLHOUSE FLAG.

school. Here is the origin of that spirit of enlightenment and liberty and justice which makes our people the greatest and best nation of the earth. The national flag, that now floats over nearly every schoolhouse in the land, is a fitting reminder to our fourteen millions of pupils that the school has made our country what it is and that the children now under its folds are to make America what it shall be.

Our nation has recently had a short but decisive war with Spain. Hundreds of thousands of the young men of our Republic eagerly responded to the President's call for volunteers. No one can tell how many of them received their first warm impulse of devotion to country and flag from seeing the Stars and Stripes floating daily above the schoolhouse.

Certainly the enthusiasm which swept across the continent as soon as the nation needed defenders was wonderful, and the intense love which was everywhere shown for the flag proved that somebody had been teaching patriotism.

We admire our patriot statesmen and our patriot soldiers. Just as admirable is the patriot school teacher, who is putting heart and soul into the training of future citizens, and who leads their voices as they say: "I pledge allegiance to my flag and to the Republic for which it stands—one Nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all."

Tell the story of Horace Mann: as a boy; as a young man; as an educator.

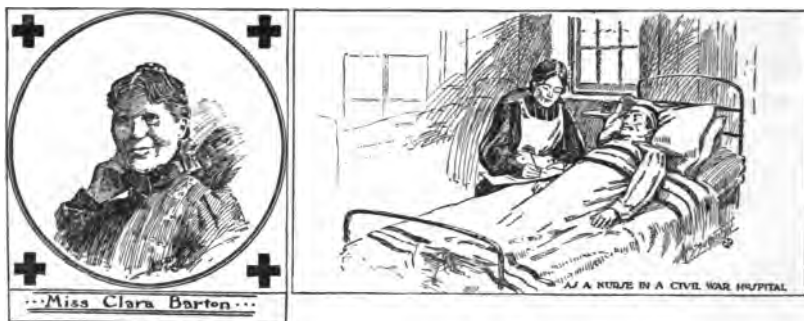
Explain the meaning of "American system of public education."

Describe the early schoolhouse.

Give an account of a spelling school.

Contrast the early schools with our modern schools.

What is a "liberal education"? What is meant by "supported by taxation"? What are "forks of the roads"? Why did the big boys go to school in the winter only? What is "secondary education"? What is the influence of the flag over the schoolhouse?



CHAPTER XXXVI

Clara Barton

1830—

OUR country has gained a high rank among the nations of the earth in many directions. Among them all we should not forget the great advantages it has given to women, and the famous exploits which have here been performed by women. America is celebrated throughout the world for its multitude of women who have distinguished themselves.

In literature, for one thing, the American woman has occupied a very high place. In former times, women never had, in any country, equal literary advantages with men. A generation ago it was very rare, even in our own country, that one could find a woman who had received a collegiate education. In the city of Boston, even the schools which we now know as grammar schools were open only to boys until long after the war of the Revolution.

In some towns, when Washington was President, the boys were sent home from school an hour earlier than the time for closing, both forenoon and afternoon, and then the girls came in; or, in other cases, the girls came for an

hour in the morning before the boys, and on Thursday afternoon, when the boys had a holiday. Even this concession to the education of girls occurred only during the summer months. Sometimes the reason which people gave why girls could not enjoy equal schooling with the boys was on account "of the female health."

Great changes have taken place since those days. Now we have colleges for women as well as for men, and colleges which both men and women attend. Almost all public schools are open alike to girls and boys.

In the early part of this century Mrs. Emma Willard gave a superior education to women in her seminary at Troy, New York. Miss Catherine Beecher educated many in her seminary at Hartford, Connecticut. A college course was opened to women at Oberlin, Ohio, as early as 1833. Three years later, Mary Lyon began her great work of educating girls in the Mount Holyoke Seminary, Massachusetts. To-day we meet in many communities almost as many young women who have been educated at college as young men.

Now let us see what some of these women have done. Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote that wonderful story, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," which stirred the hearts of the whole world as to the evil of slavery. It was not the work of leisure hours. Many of its pages were written beside the kitchen fire, while the author was attending to the family cooking. When the book was published it created the widest excitement, both North and South. Everybody read it who read books at all. The very next year it was translated into ten different languages. No other work of fiction in the English language was ever so widely sold.

In a similar way Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson aroused the

nation in behalf of the Indians by her wonderful story of "Ramona." Of Mrs. Jackson, one prominent critic said: "She is a Murillo in literature." Of the story she wrote this has been said: "It is one of the most artistic creations of American literature."

But the time would fail to tell what our distinguished American women have done in literature. Louisa M. Alcott, Mary N. Murfree, who calls herself "Charles Egbert Craddock," Mary E. Wilkins, Frances Hodgson Burnett, Maria Mitchell, Elizabeth Stuart Phelps Ward, Kate Douglass Wiggin, Ruth McEnery Stuart, Sarah Orne Jewett, Alice and Phoebe Cary, Lucy Larcom, Louise Chandler Moulton, Edna Dean Proctor, Margaret Preston, Harriet Prescott Spofford, and Margaret Deland are some of our brilliant authors. But there are so many of them that their names cannot be called. Let all honor be given to these wonderful women who have achieved such great success in the field of literature. Of one of them Whittier wrote:

"O white soul! from that far-off shore
Float some sweet song the waters o'er;
Our faith confirm, our fears dispel,
With the old voice we loved so well!"

But not alone in literature has woman's great talent and pure character made a place in American history. On the platform, in music, with the brush and the chisel in the artist's studio, in associated charities, and in the home woman has won her way, earned her laurels and achieved distinguished success.

But it is in the field of philanthropy that we find among American women the most brilliant examples of sacrifice. Women have always been saying:

"Give me, dear Lord, some work to do,
Some field to plough, some harvest rich to reap;
Some mission to fulfil both grand and true—
To feed Thy sheep."

In doing for others, woman has everywhere shown special talent and achieved worthy success.

Miss Dorothea L. Dix spent twenty years in studying the condition of paupers, lunatics, and prisoners in this country. She visited every State in the Union east of the Rocky Mountains, examining prisons, poorhouses, and lunatic asylums, trying to persuade the lawmakers and rich men to relieve the poor and needy ones. During our late Civil War she devoted four years to nursing wounded soldiers and improving hospital arrangements in connection with the army.

One day, in the year 1898, the telegraph flashed the news to all parts of the American continent, and the ocean cable told to the nations of the Old World, that Frances E. Willard was dead. That telegram carried grief to the hearts of millions. It is seldom that the death of one person brings sorrow to so many souls as in this case of Miss Willard. What had she done? Why was it that she was so greatly beloved the world over? It was her philanthropic spirit; her labors for the good of the race; her great deeds; her devotion in particular to the cause of temperance.

Early in life she was a professor in college, and was earnest in her work; but she left that profession, and for a quarter of a century engaged, heart and soul, in the work of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, of which for nearly twenty years she was the president. As a speaker, as a writer, as a leader, Miss Willard gained rare credit. But after all, it was more her character, her unselfishness, her devotion

to a great cause, which won the love and admiration of the world.

We must hasten to speak of that distinguished person whose name stands at the head of this chapter. Everybody has heard of Clara Barton. What Florence Nightingale was to the Old World, Clara Barton has been to the New. Indeed, she has not been confined to the New World, for she has done the same work in France and in far-away Turkey, and then devoted her ceaseless activities to the relief of the starving Cubans and to the wounded and sick American soldiers in Cuba. We have chosen her name as a representative woman.

Let us see what a marvelous amount of work has been crowded into this one life. She was born in Worcester County, Massachusetts, in 1830. She early learned to earn her own bread. She was a thorough housekeeper, and as clerk and book-keeper for her brother she learned the rules of business. Educated in the public schools, she became a school teacher when very young. She was employed in the Patent Office at Washington for three years, but in 1857 she lost her place because she was suspected of holding anti-slavery sentiments.

When the Civil War broke out, she heard the same call to which Miss Dix responded. She went to Washington. The troops gathered rapidly and soon the hospitals were filled. The work which she assigned to herself was the care of the sick, visiting them daily, carrying to them reading matter, comforting them with delicacies, writing letters to their friends.

Soon her work became known and her fame rapidly spread abroad. For a time she remained at Washington, with no authority, with no rank, with no pay, and subject to the orders of no one. Then she followed the army to the battle-field.

She was at Fairfax Station after the second battle of Bull Run; she was at Antietam, at Fredericksburg. She organized a bureau of records of missing men in the army. The object of this bureau was to gather information concerning the missing and to communicate it to their friends. She was thus able to comfort thousands of families, having traced the fate of more than thirty thousand men.

In this work for the soldiers she expended her whole fortune of \$10,000. Then Congress voted her \$15,000 to reimburse her for her expenditures and to help her carry on her bureau, which had proved of great service.

After the war was over she went to Europe for her health. When the Franco-German War began in 1870, she joined the Red Cross Society and helped to organize and reorganize the German hospital service. The story is told that after the surrender of Strasburg there were twenty thousand people homeless and hungry, and Miss Barton, at her own expense, provided material for thirty thousand garments to be made by women, who were thus able to earn their own food.

Three years after this war, she returned to America and began a movement looking to the recognition of the Red



RED CROSS NURSE ON THE BATTLE-FIELD.

Cross Society by our national government. She gained this recognition from our government in 1881, and became president of the American Association of the Red Cross. The constitution of this society says that its object is "to organize a system of national relief, and apply the same in mitigating



THE JOHNSTOWN FLOOD, AN OCCASION FOR RED CROSS RELIEF.

suffering caused by war, pestilence, famine, and by calamities." One article in the constitution of the American society reads as follows:

"That our society shall have for one of its objects to aid the suffering in times of great national calamities—such as floods, cyclones, great fires, pestilence, earthquakes, local famines, etc." Among the occasions of calamity when the services of the Red Cross have been called into requisition were the frightful forest fires which took place in Michigan and other sections of the great Northwest; the floods of 1882–84 in the Ohio and Mississippi rivers; several droughts in different sections; the Charleston earth-

quake, and particularly the terrible Johnstown disaster in Pennsylvania.

This Johnstown disaster was almost the entire blotting out of the town by a flood. Houses were swept away, and the loss of life was great. This flood was occasioned by the breaking away of a dam upon the Little Conemaugh River, nine miles above the town, during a heavy rainfall. The waters swept down through the valley in one great wave, carrying utter destruction to the fated city. The calamity awoke sympathy all over the country, and a fund was raised for the relief of the sufferers. Much of this fund was put into the hands of the Red Cross Society. The city was soon rebuilt, however, and is to-day much more prosperous and has a larger population than before this disaster.

A few years ago occurred a cruel uprising of Mohammedans against the Christians of Asiatic Turkey. There were terrible massacres and immense suffering ensued, especially to the people who had been driven away from their homes. Clara Barton undertook to carry relief to the survivors, and, taking her life in her hand, she penetrated into that wild country, and like a good angel carried bread, clothing, and cheer to thousands of sufferers.

Now came the civil war in Cuba, when the Cubans rose in opposition to the Spanish government. That government adopted severe and cruel measures against the people of the unhappy island. Peaceful citizens, not connected with the army on either side, were forced by the Spanish soldiers to leave their homes, their farms, and their other industries, and to stay like prisoners within fortified towns. There they had no means of livelihood, and actual starvation soon began to carry them off by thousands.

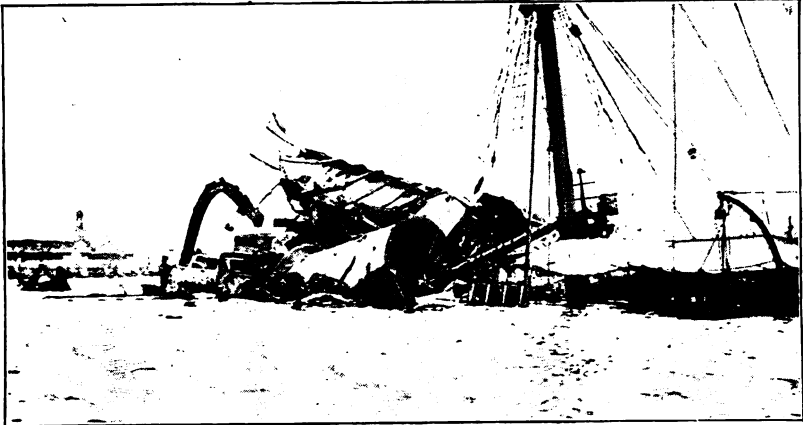
To their relief went Clara Barton, with supplies from the



THE U. S. BATTLESHIP "MAINE" IN HAVANA HARBOR THE DAY BEFORE HER DESTRUCTION.

benevolent people of the United States, ministering to their necessities, saving life, feeding the hungry, clothing the naked, conveying solace and cheer to those in the sharpest distress.

There she remained till after the American battleship *Maine* was blown up in Havana Harbor and the Spaniards grew so bitter toward all Americans that she could not longer continue her labors. Our government advised United States



THE "MAINE" AFTER THE EXPLOSION.

citizens to leave Cuba, for war between our country and Spain was likely to begin at any hour, and it would not be safe for Americans to stay.

Soon after her arrival in Washington our government declared war against Spain for her inhuman treatment of the Cubans. Then, while our warships were sweeping out to sea and while our soldiers were volunteering to fight the Spanish, Clara Barton began to organize a gigantic enterprise, by which, under the Red Cross banner, our sick and

wounded soldiers and sailors might be tenderly cared for, and also the poor, suffering, starving people of Cuba might receive the relief which had been interrupted.

Thousands of brave and good women wanted to enlist under her in this service, but only those who had some preparation in trained nursing could be accepted. The government had previously recognized the Red Cross Society, and now gave it every facility for carrying on its noble work and beautiful service for the sufferers in the war.

Miss Barton secured from the Red Cross societies in various parts of our country great quantities of supplies,—food, medicines, comforts, and delicacies,—for the sick and suffering, and soon again embarked for the seat of war. When the United States forces took Santiago de Cuba, Clara Barton and her faithful assistants were at the front, caring for the wounded and dying, even when the shot and shell were dropping all around them. Indeed, our generals thought it was not a fit place for women, there in the thick of the fight, and tried to persuade them to go to the rear; but they absolutely refused to go, and went on with their good work without flinching or apparently minding the danger at all.

Thus this “minister of mercy” braved every danger, and with force of will and kindness of heart relieved to the utmost the horrors of war, comforting the smitten, writing letters for them to their friends at home, and by every possible means mitigating the sufferings of the neglected, the sick, the wounded, and the dying.

The war is over, but Miss Barton and her lieutenants still continue at their humane service, bringing comfort to friend and foe alike.

Miss Barton’s thrilling career from the beginning to the present time is that of an angel on earth. She has opened a

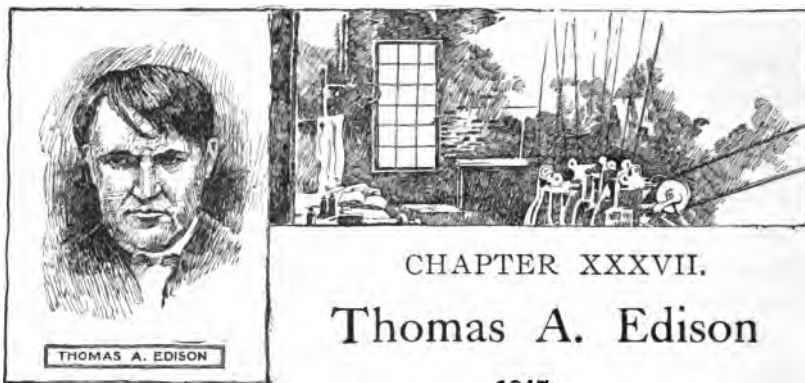
way by which multitudes of others, great-hearted like herself, can now imitate her in effectively and wisely carrying out the Golden Rule—giving water to the thirsty and food to the hungry, weeping with those that weep, helping those in distress, comforting the sorrowing, while remembering the Saviour's injunction: "Inasmuch as ye did it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye did it unto me."

What a beautiful life is that of Clara Barton's—still active, earnest, vigorous, diligent! Soldiers are exempt from war at forty-five years of age; Miss Barton does not exempt herself at sixty-eight.

But there are many noble women in America, busy in various directions, in literature, in education, in medicine, in religious work, in science, in journalism; women distinguished as reformers, as philanthropists, on the platform; women successful in music and art; in associated charities; but especially and everywhere women effective and great in the home. The women of America have fully kept pace with the men in the making of our history and in the making it noble.

Describe the education which girls received a hundred years ago. Give an account of women's work in literature. Tell the story of Dorothea Dix. Give an account of the life of Frances E. Willard. Describe the work of Clara Barton during the Civil War; in the Franco-German War; in Armenia; in Cuba. Explain the purposes of the Red Cross Society.

What made Florence Nightingale famous the world over? Do you think Frances Willard deserves a higher place in the regards of the people than Clara Barton? Why? Why not? What do you think of the great work done by Miss Barton? "Resolved: That a philanthropist like Miss Barton can do more good in the world than a millionaire." Would you take the affirmative or the negative of this question? Give briefly the arguments you would present in support of your opinion.



CHAPTER XXXVII.

Thomas A. Edison

1847 —

THERE is an old saying that a nation is happiest if it has no history. In this the word "history" means wars and disturbances, and conflicts. The idea is that when a country is quietly attending to its business, and is not troubled by anything unusual or remarkable, then it is most prosperous and its people most happy.

Such was the history of the United States from the end of the Civil War to the short, sharp War of 1898. To tell the story of our country during that long period is to give an account of quiet but rapid growth; of important and universal improvements in the condition of the people.

The country has grown in size, in population, in the number of the States, and in the amount and character of its business. The condition of the people has been bettered by the increase of comforts in the homes, in the shops and offices, and in travel. A like history has never before been known.

In 1865 the area of the United States was a little over three million square miles. Soon after the Civil War, we bought of Russia the great territory of Alaska, which added six hundred thousand square miles more. At first this new region

was thought to be almost worthless; but the trade in seal skins has proved large enough to pay for the country. Besides, Alaska abounds in lumber and its fisheries are valuable. Recent discoveries of gold are drawing great numbers of people to these cold regions of the north.

The population of the United States has doubled since the Civil War. This has been a remarkable growth, and it is somewhat owing to the large number of people who have come to this country since the close of that war. About one-sixth of all the people in the United States to-day were born in foreign countries.

These immigrants have come from Great Britain and Ireland, from Germany, from Norway and Sweden, from Russia, from Spain and Portugal, from Italy and Austria, from China and Japan. They have come from near and from far; from all the civilized countries of the world and from many of those not civilized. They have come because they believed that life in the United States was easier and happier than in their home countries. They have come in great numbers and they have been cordially welcomed, for the most part.

When the war was followed by peace, there were thirty-six States members of the Union. Twenty-six of these were



GOLD HUNTERS IN ALASKA.

east of the Mississippi River, having the same names and bounds as to-day. The great river was bordered on its west side by a row of five States, extending from Canada to the Gulf. Two States, Texas and Kansas, reached out farther westward, and then barren plain and mountain of almost endless extent must be crossed to reach the three Pacific States.

Now the thirty-six States have become forty-five. The Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, and Washington form the northern tier of States; Nebraska, Wyoming, Colorado, and Utah make the central line of communication between the centre of the country and the Pacific Coast. Only Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Indian territories remain, which in time will be admitted to the Union, making our great nation a solid body of States, North and South, East and West.

The year 1898 marked another expanse in our national area. The islands of Hawaii were annexed at their own request. Porto Rico and the Philippines were the prizes of war. In time, Cuba, for whose independence the war with Spain was fought, may possibly, come voluntarily under the Stars and Stripes. Suddenly from a nation confined to a continent, we have swept forth, south and west, and made territorial colonies of some of the richest islands of the seas.

When we stop to consider the growth of this country in business lines we find an interesting story that would take volumes to tell. In agriculture the change is remarkable. Grain is almost raised by machinery. In place of horse-plows and hand rakes and scythes, the steam plow, sowers, reapers, and binders have come. Work is done by wholesale.

In commerce, great steamers have obtained the business of the world. In manufactures, new and greatly improved machinery produces cheaper and better products. In mining, iron, copper, gold, silver, and other ores have been obtained

in great quantities and with increasing ease and cheapness. In nearly all kinds of business the last thirty years have entirely changed processes and results.

To what is this growth of the United States in comfort and prosperity due? Much of it is the result of invention. Perhaps in no other respect has the American mind more easily shown itself superior to that of other countries than in its inventive genius. We have read of Fulton and his steam-boat. Just as interesting is the account of Eli Whitney and the cotton-gin.

The story of Samuel Slater and the introduction of cotton manufacturing into this country would interest any one. The steam locomotive was an English invention, which America at once adopted. Our improved day coaches, sleeping-cars, and dining-cars are due to American ingenuity. The valuable air-brake was invented by an American. Our own Morse devised the electric telegraph.

Let us complete our first steps in United States history by a short account of the greatest of American inventors, Thomas A. Edison.

Though born in Ohio, young Edison spent much of his boyhood in the State of Michigan. At an early age he was thrown upon his own resources, and for some time he earned his living as a newsboy on the railroad-train running between Detroit and Port Huron.

While in this employment the fifteen-year old lad gave an illustration of shrewdness that indicated the coming man. One of the great battles of the Civil War had just been fought, and the Detroit evening papers were filled with its details. Young Edison had the news of the battle telegraphed to the various villages along the line of the railroad and posted in conspicuous places upon bulletin-boards.

Then he obtained a thousand copies of the paper and took the evening train as usual for Port Huron. At the first station, where he usually had two customers, he quickly sold forty papers. At another station he found a crowd waiting, eagerly demanding the papers and gladly paying ten cents, or double the usual price, for a copy.

Each station platform was packed as the train arrived, with a throng seeking an account of the battle. When he arrived at the end of his route and was walking the mile between the depot and the village, he was met by a crowd of people coming to meet him. All wanted papers; all were afraid that he would not bring enough; and therefore all came to get a paper as early as possible. He had no difficulty in selling all he had at twenty-five cents a copy.

Most of Edison's inventive work has been connected with electricity.

It was an act of bravery on the part of the newsboy that gave him his first insight into telegraphy and started him on his famous career. At one of the stations, where his train made a long stop, the little child of the station-master was playing on the platform. The child left the platform and sat down on the track, to play in the sand. A

freight-car was rapidly coming down the rails, when Edison saw the child's danger and sprang to the rescue. The time was short, but the lad was agile and the child was saved, though the car just grazed young Edison as it passed.



YOUNG EDISON SELLING PAPERS AT
25 CENTS A COPY.

The father desired to reward the hero, and offered to teach him how to telegraph, promising that in three months he should be ready for a good position. Edison quickly assented, and for ten days appeared promptly for the lesson. Then he was missed for a few days, when he again appeared, bringing with him a small set of telegraph instruments, which he had himself made.

Long before the three months were finished, Edison had learned the work. He obtained a position as telegraph operator, though still but fifteen years of age, at a salary of twenty-five dollars a month. His work was so satisfactory that he soon obtained better positions, and before he was eighteen his salary had become five times as large as at first.

During these years Edison worked hard and never lost an opportunity to improve himself. While regularly attending to his night-work at the office, he found time to devote to other matters. First, he read. He used the public library; he spent his surplus wages on books.

One day he purchased an entire set of Faraday's works on electricity, brought them home at three o'clock in the morning, and breakfast-time found him still reading them.

Besides, he continued his experiments, rigging up laboratories in every place where he was at work—a plan which he had begun while a newsboy, making use of one of the old cars.

Another day, while Edison was having a vacation, which he was spending at home, he went down by the side of the river. This he found to be a raging current, filled with huge cakes of ice, which were causing great destruction wherever they were thrown. There was no possible means of communication across the river between Port Huron and Sarnia; even the wires under the river would not carry messages.

A sudden thought sent Edison to a near-by locomotive, and in a moment long and short toots were sounding out the telegraphic signals: "Hello, Sarnia; Sarnia, do you get what I say?" With eager expectation the people listened for a reply. Again Edison sent out the words from the shrill whistle of the locomotive. After a time came a response, and communication of a peculiar nature was restored between the towns.

When Edison was twenty-one, he secured a position in a telegraph office in Boston. Here he was at once compelled to show the material of which he was made. He was set to



EDISON TESTED BY THE NEW YORK OPERATOR.

work to receive a long message from New York. At the other end of the line was the most rapid sender of the office. The Boston boys expected to show this "young chap from the Woolly West," as they at first called him, that he knew but little about telegraphy.

The message began slowly, but soon it came with greater and greater rapidity. Yet the young man had no trouble. After a time the words were coming about as fast as any operator could write them down.

Edison glanced up and saw that every man in the room was standing behind him. He knew then that they were testing him. He kept on writing the message in a clear hand, though he occasionally stopped a moment to sharpen

a pencil. The New York operator, surprised at the ease with which his message was being taken, began to slur his words—to have too small spaces between them. But Edison was used to that also, and calmly continued writing.

At last, when he had shown every one that he most certainly did understand telegraphy, he stopped and ticked a message to New York, asking why the operator did not work a little faster. Edison's position in the Boston office was never questioned afterwards.

But Edison had no intention of remaining a telegraph operator all his life. He kept on with his studies and experiments. One of these brought him good fortune. He made a stock-printer—a machine used in stock-exchanges for recording the price of stocks. When he went to New York, having finished his engagement in Boston, he was wandering through the city and happened into the Stock Exchange. It was the famous "Black Friday," which brought business ruin to many thousands. Everything was in the greatest confusion, and every one was more than ever dependent on the printed stock-lists.

Just at this minute the stock-quotation printer broke down. The managers were almost crazed. They had no idea what was the trouble. Edison glanced at the machine, saw the trouble, and told the managers. The printer was repaired and began to work at once. Edison was the hero of the hour, and the next day was given charge of the machine at a salary nearly three times as large as he had ever received. He now began to be known to the world.

His life from that time until the present is somewhat known to everybody. His first manufacturing establishment was at Newark, New Jersey. Three years later he moved to Menlo Park, about twenty-five miles from New York City.

His works here and the wonderful inventions that came from this factory brought to Edison the title of "The Wizard of Menlo Park." After ten years he moved again, and his establishment at Orange, New Jersey, is almost one of the wonders of the world.

It would take a large book to describe the inventions that have been the result of Edison's work. A few of the best known only may be mentioned. He experimented with the telegraph, and step by step perfected the duplex, the quadruplex, and sextuplex systems of telegraphing. By the first a message can be sent each way over a single wire at the same time; by the second, two messages, and by the third, three messages, each way, at once. In other words, under the sextuplex system one wire will do the work of six wires under former conditions.

Edison invented the transmitter which is universally used to-day in connection with the Bell telephone; the microphone, for magnifying sound, so that a very low sound can be plainly heard at some distance; the megaphone, for long-distance speaking; the phonograph, for recording sound and repeating it; the mimeograph, for making many copies from one writing; the kinetoscope, for reproducing views of bodies in action; the phonokinetoscope, adding sound to sight, so that one may see and hear a play or an opera which has previously taken place—these are some of Edison's inventions.

"The Wizard" is also noted for being the first to send telegraphic messages from moving trains; for making one of the earliest electric railroads; for perfecting the incandescent electric light.

Something of Edison's persistency is shown in this connection. At first he used a platinum wire in the little electric

lamp. He wanted something better. He wanted some form of bamboo or other vegetable fibre. He sent a man to explore China and Japan for bamboo. He sent another, who traveled twenty-three hundred miles up the Amazon River and finally reached the Pacific Ocean, searching for bamboo. He sent a third to Ceylon to spend years in a similar search. Eighty varieties of bamboo and three thousand specimens of other vegetable fibre were brought him. He tested them all; three or four were found suitable.

Such has been the life of a modern inventor, of one of the men who are rapidly changing the world by their discoveries. They are having a large share in this work, but all other laborers have their share also. The America of Benjamin Franklin was greatly unlike that of John Smith; the United States that Abraham Lincoln knew was not the United States over which Washington was President; and the Republic in the days of Dewey and Sampson is vastly superior to the nation in the days of the Civil War.

It depends upon the boys and girls who are in school to-day to determine what shall be the condition of the United States, nay, even of the world, thirty years hence.

Describe the growth of the United States in area; in population; in number of States; in business.

Give a brief list of American inventors.

Give accounts of Edison as a newsboy; as a hero; as a telegraph operator.

Tell the story of the telegraphic whistle; of the Boston operator; of the New York incident.

Briefly mention some of Edison's great inventions.

Do you think that the United States will ever have a greater area than at present? Ought all immigrants to this country to be welcomed to-day? Why are not the territories made States? Does agricultural machinery make dearer or cheaper foods? Of the stories told here about Edison, which showed quick thought? Which showed business ability? Which showed experience and practice?

Books for Outside Reading.

MacCoun—Historical Geography of the United States. *Bonner*—Child's History of the United States. *Butterworth*—Young Folks' History of America. *Ellis*—Youth's History of the United States. *Markham*—Colonial Days. *Wright*—Children's Stories in American History.

Hale—Stories of Discovery. *Towle*—Marco Polo. *Kingston*—Notable Voyages. *Abbott*—American Pioneers and Patriots. *Abbott*—Ferdinand de Soto. *Higginson*—American Explorers.

Henty—Under Drake's Flag. *Towle*—Sir Walter Raleigh. *Cooke*—Stories of the Old Dominion. *Cooke*—My Lady Pocahontas. *Eggleston*—Pocahontas.

Bacon—Historical Pilgrimages in New England. *Hawthorne*—Grandfather's Chair. *Hawthorne*—Twice-Told Tales. *Moore*—Pilgrims and Puritans. *Abbott*—Myles Standish. *Drake*—Around the Hub. *Gilman*—The Story of Boston. *Moore*—From Colony to Commonwealth.

Abbott—Peter Stuyvesant. *Irving*—Sketch Book. *Kennedy*—Rob of the Bowl. *Watson*—The Great Peacemaker.

Drake—Indian History for Young Folks. *Catherwood*—Story of Tonty. *Henty*—With Wolfe in Canada.

Watson—Boston Tea Party. *Greene*—Peter and Polly. *Preble*—History of the Flag. *Woodman*—Boys and Girls of the Revolution. *Scudder*—George Washington. *Fiske*—Washington and His Country. *Henty*—True to the Flag. *Coffin*—Boys of '76. *Abbott*—Blue-Jackets of '76. *Ellet*—Domestic History of the Revolution. *Watson*—The Friend of George Washington. *Mayhew*—Young Benjamin Franklin. *Wilkins*—Adventures of Ann.

Abbott—Daniel Boone. *Bolton*—Famous American Statesmen. *Coffin*—Building the Nation. *Upton*—Our Early Presidents, their Wives and Children. *Hale*—Philip Nolan's Friends.

Knox—Life of Robert Fulton. *Hale*—Stories of Inventions. *Lossing*—Story of the United States Navy. *Abbott*—Blue-Jackets of 1812. *Soley*—Boys of 1812. *Eggleston*—Big Brother. *Seawell*—Twelve Naval Captains.

Brooks—Boy Settlers. *Eggleston*—Hoosier Schoolboy. *Monroe*—Golden Days of '49. *Irving*—Astoria. *Brooks*—Boy Emigrants. *Wright*—Children's Stories of American Progress. *Field*—Story of the Atlantic Telegraph.

Butterworth—In the Boyhood of Lincoln. *Brooks*—Abraham Lincoln. *Coffin*—Drum Beat of the Nation. *Henty*—With Lee in Virginia. *Adams*—Our Standard Bearer. *Page*—Two Little Confederates. *Coffin*—Redeeming the Republic. *Soley*—Sailor Boys of '61. *Abbott*—Blue-Jackets of '61.

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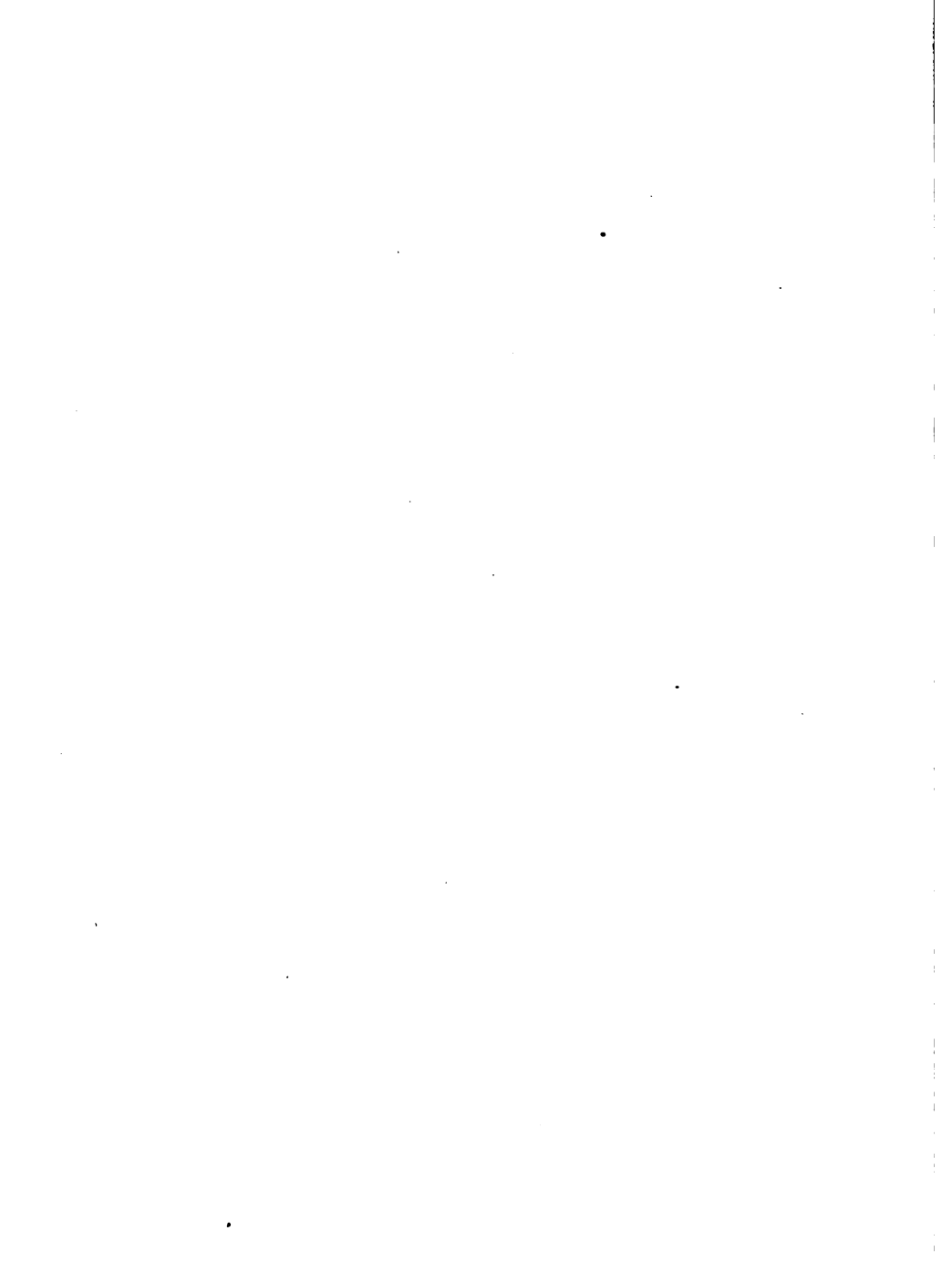
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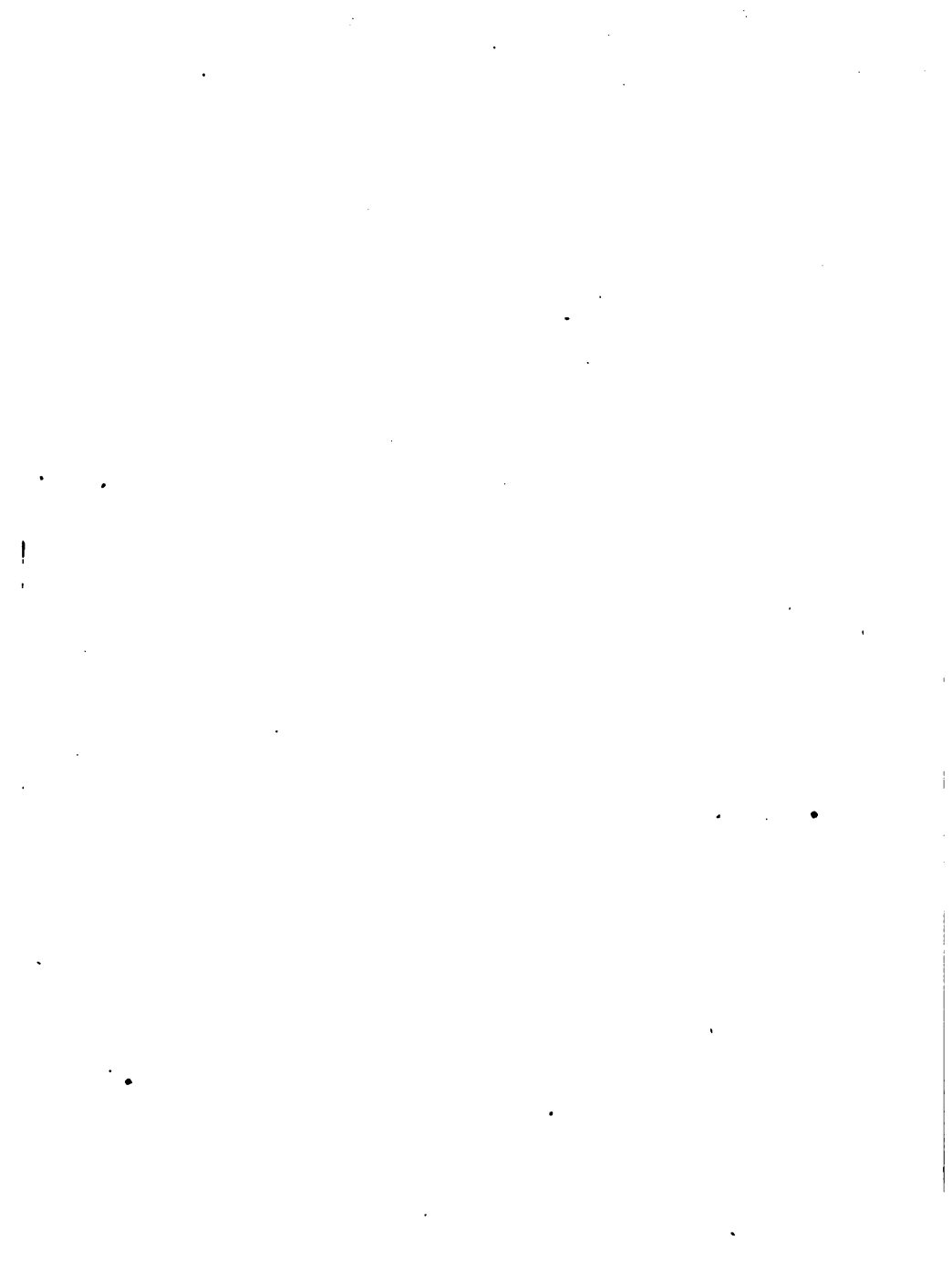
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